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MAX R. BRUNSTETTER, *Editor*

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TEACHERS COLLEGE
RECORD

The Place of the Campus Laboratory School in the Education of Teachers*

HOLLIS L. CASWELL

DEAN OF TEACHERS COLLEGE

A SOUND conception of the role of the campus laboratory school can be achieved only when the school is viewed in the setting of the total range of laboratory experience needed in a program of teacher education. If it is made the starting point, a limited view of laboratory experience is certain to result.

It is my firm conviction that extended laboratory experience is essential for good teacher education. It is not enough for the teacher to know a thing on the conceptional level; he must be able to interpret knowledge into action. Workers in other phases of education may be content to teach with major emphasis on what the student knows, but in teacher education this is fatal. Attention must focus all the time on what the student can *do*. Advising prospective teachers that they should understand their pupils, giving them verbal accounts of study techniques, and having them read reports on cases others have analyzed will be of little value unless the student is guided through the final difficult steps of actually studying a given pupil, selecting appropriate techniques, analyzing the results, appraising the implications for teaching, and carrying into operation the resulting plans. The same point may be made about all other phases of the preparation of the teacher.

*An address given at a meeting of the Association for Student Teaching in St. Louis on February 25.

NEED FOR VARIED LABORATORY EXPERIENCE

For the most part, the provision of laboratory experience has received all too little attention in teacher educa-

tion. The proportion of the student's program devoted to such experience has been too small, the range of experience provided too narrow, the personnel available for student guidance inadequate, and the facilities provided too limited. This phase of the curriculum should receive increased emphasis. But at the same time I believe that many of our conceptions of the function and nature of laboratory experience are decidedly inadequate and that a great deal of thought needs to be given to this matter. Upon occasion it has seemed to me that leaders in campus laboratory schools, who in particular should be thinking out ahead in this area, actually are tending to become a vested interest group and to defeat broadened programs of student participation because they think of their schools rather than of the function to be served.

Traditionally there has been a tendency to limit laboratory experience to certain courses in the curriculum, in particular to methods courses and student teaching. It is my belief that laboratory experience should be interwoven with all aspects of the educational program of the prospective teacher. The firsthand experience provided by laboratory opportunities is not something to be left to the junior or senior years in college, or to be restricted to student teaching. Every phase of the curriculum should seek to provide laboratory experience in order to give maximum meaning to what is taught and to assist the student to interpret verbal concepts into behavior. Both emphases are crucial for good professional education. President Stoddard of the University of Illinois tells in a recent article that he made it a practice to bring a child about three and a half years of age before the class in child development. He would then ask, "How old is this child?" The answers would run from 10 months to 8 years. "What is his vocabulary likely to be?" Answers would run from 50 to 10,000 words. "What does he weigh?" Answers would run from 15 to 100 pounds. "What kind of game would he like to play with you?" Answers would include anything from picking up blocks to checkers. It should be obvious that child development as well as many other things cannot be studied with desirable results by the prospective teacher without a large amount of laboratory experience interwoven with study of written materials.

It follows that laboratory experiences for teachers in preparation should be widely varied. Opportunities are needed to study individual children with great care, to make community analyses, to participate in community activities, to work with children in out-of-school experiences, to work with parents, to study school systems as a whole, to participate in professional organizations, to participate in school faculty meetings, curriculum committees, and other all-school enterprises, to make analyses of the physical environment, and so on. In brief, what is required is provision, in all phases of the curriculum, of those firsthand experiences that are appropriate to the purposes to be achieved.

Another general point requires mention. Laboratory experiences in teacher education should be selected so as to get maximum transfer of desirable behavior and understanding into the situations in which the prospective teacher is most likely to work. It does little good to assist a prospective teacher to develop skills in situations that are so different from the schools in which he may later teach that there is little if any carryover. It may, in fact, present a real handicap to a prospective teacher to have experience only with average or bright children when in preparation, and then in actual work to have to deal with the total range of abilities. Similarly, experience in only a school so organized as to be free from typical community pressures may severely limit a prospective teacher's ability to deal with the community problems he is certain to encounter on the job.

THE CAMPUS SCHOOL IN THE BROADER SETTING

Now, with this setting, let us consider the question of the campus laboratory school. What can it contribute to the laboratory experiences of teachers in preparation? Different workers in teacher education give different answers to this question. I have heard many express with great conviction the opinion that the campus laboratory school should be the heart of the program of teacher preparation. I have heard others express the view that the needed laboratory experiences can best be provided in their entirety in field situations. Practice, as well as differences in opinion, indicates the presence of a problem. During the past few years I have taken every opportunity to visit laboratory schools. In one institution, in which the president had described the laboratory school as the heart of their program, I found just two college students in the school during a half day of visitation. In another institution I found the opportunity for adequately supervised student teaching reduced almost to the vanishing point because the number of college students far surpassed the facilities of the school, and the director of student teaching resisted all efforts to develop other facilities. In many instances I found a substantial lack of cooperative effort on the part of teachers in the college and teachers in the laboratory school; I found teachers attempting to teach both college classes and laboratory school classes and doing neither very well. It is my belief that a dogmatic position may not safely be taken on the issues involved. There is still much to learn about how best to provide desired laboratory experience, and to this end experimentation is greatly needed. Furthermore, there are wide differences among institutions and what may be best in one situation may not be best in another. Nevertheless, there are some considerations which appear to have wide application and to be reasonable.

At the outset it seems obvious to me that no single school can possibly meet all of the needs for laboratory experience on the part of a student body preparing to be teachers. On the one hand, the range of experiences needed is so

wide as to require a variety of situations, and on the other hand, the extent of activities will be so great in any curriculum which makes reasonable provision for laboratory experience as to swamp completely a single school. Some laboratory experience should be provided from the freshman year right through the senior year. There will be concentrations of it at certain times, especially during student teaching, but there should never be any long period when the student is not being afforded some laboratory experience. As indicated before, the range of experience should be wide, including opportunities to make studies of individual children, to observe good teaching, to work with parents, to participate in community activities, to make community studies, to work with children in out-of-school situations, to participate in faculty meetings, to give remedial instruction, to carry heavy responsibility for the instruction of a group over a prolonged period of time, to serve on school curriculum committees, to assist in extracurricular activities, to study problems and resources of the physical environment, and the like. A college which is providing this desirable and, in fact, necessary range of experience must make the whole area within its reach a laboratory. Even in the school-centered activities this seems essential. Students need experience in various types of schools; they need to learn that a principle which is applied in one way in one school may have to be applied in a different way in another school; they need help in seeing how to adjust to various types of school organization and practice. Thus, it is my view that both the size of load of laboratory experience in a well-developed program of teacher education and the kinds of experiences needed make it essential that the institution view the entire accessible area as a source of laboratory facilities. The development and use of these varied facilities should not and, in fact, cannot be left to chance if an adequate program is to be achieved. Arrangements are required with a variety of schools and with social agencies and services. Thus, as I stated at the outset, I do not believe that a single laboratory school can provide all of the laboratory facilities needed in a program of teacher education. The tendency to think that it can, greatly limits the desirable first-hand experience of students.

DESIRABLE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CAMPUS SCHOOL

Now for a more specific approach to our question. Although the facilities needed for laboratory experience are much broader than a single school, can a campus laboratory school make a significant contribution to this experience or are other facilities preferable? By "campus laboratory school" I mean a school largely or entirely under the control of the college, located on or near the college campus, organized for the specific purpose of preparing teachers, with staff and facilities designed to serve this purpose. It is my belief that such a school can play an important role in providing laboratory experience for teachers in preparation.

I believe, however, that in order to play this role the laboratory school must possess certain general features to which I shall now turn.

First of all, a laboratory school should have a student body which is reasonably representative of the student bodies in schools in which the teachers in preparation will eventually teach. One of the great weaknesses of many laboratory schools is that they are more like selective private schools than they are like public schools. Not infrequently they are used largely by the socially favored in a community to get better than ordinary educational opportunities for their children. Such a situation makes it almost impossible for a laboratory school to achieve its basic purpose. A school in which all pupils have I.Q.'s above 100, with an average I.Q. of 120 or 125, gives students in training for teaching an entirely erroneous idea of what may be expected of children generally and predisposes the beginning teacher toward disillusionment and frustration. The school from which 90 per cent or more of the pupils go on to college has such a narrow curriculum when related to the needs of all youth as to give the prospective teacher a false idea of what an adequate secondary school program is like. Thus, it is of major importance that teachers who are being prepared to deal with unselected pupil populations have their laboratory experiences in schools with such populations.

In addition to having a reasonably representative student body, it is essential that a laboratory school operate in a reasonably typical community setting. More and more we are seeing that good schooling requires close ties with the community. A really live and significant program can be developed only where there is constant interaction between the school and other aspects of community life. The school should get many leads for its program from the community and should be a powerful force for good community life. Experience in working in a school which achieves this community relationship is one of the central needs of the teacher in preparation. Consesequently, it is of first importance that the laboratory situations in which prospective teachers get their experience possess at least a reasonable number of the elements of typical community settings. It is important to see how community pressures operate in a school, how relations outside the school influence school work, how the teacher can become a part of the community, how groups with varying degrees of status operate in the community, and what a school does about such things. It is my conviction that any school with a "synthetic" community is a poor place for teacher education. Unfortunately, many laboratory schools, by drawing pupils on a selective basis from a large area, have highly artificial and tenuous community relationships. Such schools, in my judgment, are poor sources of laboratory experience. Much to be desired is the setting in which all of the children within a district are served by the laboratory school, and in which the people of the district have regularly established avenues for partici-

pating in the organization and conduct of the school.

Among the various types of laboratory experience needed by prospective teachers are certain ones which can be provided by the campus laboratory school with markedly greater effectiveness than by any other arrangement. This is particularly true of observation by students. Observation has two principal purposes to serve, which I shall designate by the terms "standard setting" and "analysis." Most students preparing to teach have had very limited experience with elementary and secondary schools. Not infrequently the only schools with which they are intimately acquainted are the ones they attended. When they think of teaching they inevitably think of the practices and conditions in the schools they know, and all too often these are far from a worthy model. Consequently, it is of great importance to have a means of setting a different standard for the student, a standard more nearly approaching the ideal than the majority of schools do. This objective of "standard setting" can be achieved only through enabling the student to see a superior school in operation at frequent intervals and to learn what makes it work. For this purpose a superior school readily accessible to the student body of the college is essential.

The objective of "analysis" is that of enabling the prospective teacher to identify the various elements in a teaching–learning situation and to determine appropriate procedures. It is easy, even for those who work constantly in the preparation of teachers, to overlook the difficulty in learning to see and interpret what is going on in a classroom. It is interesting and enlightening to take a diverse group into a room and then to compare what they have seen in the situation. The depth of penetration, naturally, varies tremendously. Students need a great deal of help and practice in this process of analysis before and during the time that they are becoming involved in teaching. How many who talk glibly about the problem of the retiring child will spot such a child in a group and sense what the good teacher is doing to bring him into group activity? How many who readily accept the importance of pupil interest on the verbal level can sense the problems of an actual situation in achieving group interest? In preparing teachers it is important to give guidance that results in assured ability to analyze such essential features of a going classroom situation.

It is my judgment that experimentation is needed in developing facilities which are better adapted to the function of analysis. The large classroom with college students at one end seems to me to have some serious limitations for at least certain aspects of this task. It might be advantageous to have a setting in which the college instructor could guide the student observer's attention during the actual development of the classroom situation. Certainly, students will miss many things which would have greatly increased significance if pointed out right at the time. A comment such as, "Watch Mary and Louise," or, "How does the suggestion

just made relate to the home background of Richard?" may guide a student toward a new and more insightful line of analysis. The possible values of this type of guidance seem to me to be sufficiently great to warrant experimenting with the provision of an observation room adjoining a classroom with the intervening wall constructed of one-way vision glass. Sound connections with the classroom would permit the observer to hear what was said in the classroom but would make it possible to talk in the observation room without being heard in the classroom. In this way a setting could be provided in which the college instructor could guide the students directly in the process of analysis.

The second type of laboratory experience to which the campus laboratory school should make a large contribution is the initial participation activities leading up to the point where the student is ready to assume major responsibility for a class. These activities should include such things as making studies of individual children, providing special instruction for individual children and small groups, participating in extracurricular activities, collecting and organizing instructional material, working with school and parent committees, and taking part in out-of-school community enterprises. The pattern of participation activities should be planned on an individual basis for each student. These activities should by no means be restricted to the campus laboratory school, but, because of the school's ready accessibility and staff, may appropriately center there.

Regarding the student-teaching phase of teacher preparation many people may not agree with my opinion. While student teaching is the major purpose served by most campus laboratory schools, I do not believe this should be the case. It is my conviction that when the student reaches the point where he is judged ready to assume major responsibility in a teaching situation, he should be placed in a more typical school situation than can be provided by the campus laboratory school if this school is used extensively for student teaching. In other words, the prospective teacher should have experience in situations of the type in which he will have to teach. It is of utmost importance that good supervision be provided him by the college, that the associated school be committed to a policy of aiding in his preparation, and that the teacher with whom he works be capable of guiding him. It seems to me that a group of schools and teachers as associates of the campus laboratory school is essential to afford both the kind of student-teaching experience which is most profitable and the extent of facilities needed if a desirable amount of student teaching is to be provided. Too great a concentration of student teachers in a school gives it an unreal atmosphere. A student needs a chance to be in a school where conditions are normal and where he works, not alone with the class he teaches, but also with the general aspects of school life. It may further be mentioned that a school which is staffed to a large extent by student teachers cannot serve well the

needs for "standard setting" and "analysis" mentioned earlier.

There is one purpose which the campus laboratory school should serve in relation to student teaching and which can be done without interfering with the functions of observation and participation. Occasionally there are students who experience special difficulties in their student teaching and require special assistance to overcome them. I am of the opinion that more adequate procedures and facilities are needed to deal with such cases than are now available. The campus laboratory school should be in a position to meet this need. For example, it has been found that one of the best devices for improving the skill of guidance counselors is to have an arrangement which enables them to make a recording of their practice interviews for self-analysis and study. This seems to me to be very suggestive for student teaching. It is quite possible that arrangements that enable the student experiencing difficulty to secure for use in self-analysis a recording, and possibly a motion picture, of a period of work with a group of children would be a very effective teaching device. Obviously, such equipment would require special arrangements and could not be generally available, but it might be provided in certain classrooms in a campus laboratory school.

RESEARCH IN RELATION TO THE CAMPUS SCHOOL

In a broad sense, every good school must have a research emphasis in its program. It is impossible for a school to stand still. Its practices are either improving and being adapted to changing conditions or they are becoming crystallized and inflexible. The process of constantly improving practice and of adapting to new conditions requires a research attitude and many research procedures. In this sense every campus laboratory school should obviously be concerned with research.

But there is another type of research activity to which reference is more often made when talking about laboratory schools. This is the conducting of more definitive experimentation so planned and evaluated as to be of general significance to American education. This type of research is quite different from that which is designed primarily to improve practice in the participating school. Not that the two types can be separated by a hard and fast line, or that research of the second type may not contribute to improvement in the school doing the research, but the comparative emphasis on individual school improvement and scientific generalization of results makes a difference in operation which is of great significance.

It is my belief that research of the second type cannot be combined effectively with the functions of student observation and participation. The outcomes of serious experimentation cannot be assumed in advance and very often it is necessary to depart widely from practices most generally accepted. Also, a project, once undertaken, must have concentration which assures its completion. Methods of measurement not feasible in usual sit-

uations must often be employed. A situation such as this is not one in which to provide laboratory experience for a prospective teacher. Rather, a setting is needed in which the education of the student teacher can be the focus of attention and around which resources are organized. When both functions are undertaken in a single school, both are likely to be performed badly. Consequently, it is my advice that laboratory schools which have the responsibility of providing laboratory experience for teachers in preparation should restrict their research activities to those designed to improve school practices.

Perhaps a further word is necessary about research, since some laboratory schools have been established with the primary function of conducting experimentation of the second type I mention above, with only incidental responsibility for the preparation of teachers. Horace Mann–Lincoln School at Teachers College was of this type. Just how significant a contribution such schools are making to curriculum experimentation is another question entirely. At Teachers College we made an exhaustive study of the various approaches we might make to school experimentation, after which we concluded that operation of a school like Horace Mann–Lincoln was not the most promising. It should be noted that the provision of laboratory facilities for student teachers was not involved; the sole function with which we were concerned was the development of school experimentation with maximum applicability. It was our judgment that a school lacking a normal community setting and with a student body highly selected with regard to intellectual ability, social background, vocational goal, and probable college attendance held little promise for experimentation of wide significance. We did not have at our command means of basically reconstituting the school, but even if we had had, there was a further point that required consideration. Would not experimentation be more significant if undertaken in several schools in cooperation? For example, it is well known that developing sound intergroup relations differs greatly in varying situations. Parallel study of such a problem in several schools of different types should result in generalizations of much wider applicability than those developed in one situation alone. As a result of this belief, we at Teachers College arranged with a group of schools to become associated with a Research Institute to undertake curriculum experimentation on a cooperative basis. So far our experience with this approach, while not without problems, has been most encouraging. Consequently, for those teacher-educating institutions that are interested in curriculum experimentation designed to influence educational practice widely, I can commend sincerely consideration of an "associated schools" approach in which the institution concentrates its resources on providing the staff of specialists needed for such an undertaking. It is our experience that there is no difficulty in finding more schools than can be accepted to provide the desirable and necessary conditions for work.

In conclusion, I wish to emphasize the need for experimentation designed to discover how better to incorporate laboratory experience in teacher preparation. Current differences of opinion indicate need for more reliable information about the outcomes of various practices. The hope may be expressed that teacher-educating institutions will make the entire area of laboratory experience a subject for experimental testing in the years ahead.

The High School of the Future*

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THERE are clairvoyant implications in this title which I hasten to disclaim. I am neither a prophet nor the son of a prophet, and I fully sense the hazards of attempting to predict. There is an urgency about America's role, as I see it in the current scene, which recalls the words of the ancient prophet, Joel, "Your old men shall dream dreams, and your young men shall see visions."

In 1944, during the tense days of the war, Professor Carl L. Becker published a little book with the arresting title, *How New Will the Better World Be?* He points out that "Making a new and better world is something that is or should be *always* going on. In the present state of the world the task is far more complex, and therefore far more difficult, than it has been for some centuries past; our only advantage is that we have more knowledge and more power for doing what needs to be done. If the war shocks us into taking the task more seriously than we have hitherto done, so much the better. But let no one suppose that the war will have made the task any easier or have revealed to us any magic formula for setting the world straight all at once. . . ."[1]

The issues which we face, and will face continuously in the future, are not new. We all remember that first and signal publication of the Educational Policies Commission—*The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Several of the possibilities and needs of the high school of the future are depicted with surprising insight by those great men whom we term the Founding Fathers. It is pertinent to point out, however, that what the Founding Fathers envisioned as the educational needs of a democracy now, because of economic and social developments, become imperatives if we are to maintain and improve our way of life.

The guideposts to the future of the secondary school are the products of the cooperative endeavor of a number of leaders in American society. I reason, therefore, that what is needed in the months and years immediately ahead is leadership for the cooperative solution of our problems. It is for us to find cooperatively the means for securing the adoption in schools of the

*An address given at the Teachers College Dinner held in Chicago on March 1, 1949.

[1] Carl L. Becker, *How New Will the Better World Be?* Knopf, 1944, p. 244.

best of what we know. Only so can we accelerate that program of secondary education which will lift the level of living both at home and abroad.

I choose to present five aspects of the program of the future secondary school. When these aspects assume their proper place in the pattern they will form a design of strength and beauty.

1. *The secondary school of the future will enroll all normal adolescents and serve them appropriately.* In spite of the fact that throughout our history the frontier thinkers have heralded the importance to our national well-being of universal secondary education, the high school has remained a selective institution, largely academic in its emphasis, until comparatively recently. It seems only yesterday that social and economic forces made it feasible to think realistically in terms of secondary education for all.

During the sixty years since 1890, high school enrollment has increased nine times as fast as the general population and twenty times as fast as the population group fourteen through seventeen years of age. In spite of this, secondary-school enrollment has only once been as high as 73 per cent of the persons fourteen through seventeen years of age. That was in 1940-41, when it reached a total of about 7.5 millions.

National figures reveal the high percentage of youth leaving school. Of 1,000 pupils enrolled in the fifth grade in 1933-34, only 836 remained during the school year preceding the last four years of public education, only 792 entered the first year of high school, and the survivors on graduation day numbered only 462.

It is not surprising, therefore, that an earnest search for the program, the curricular offerings, the instructional practices, and the administrative procedures which include all youth is largely confined to the 1930's and 1940's. I predict that by 1960 we will have developed a program of such scope and vitality that virtually 100 per cent of the age group will be in school through the eighteenth year, and that an increasing percentage will receive further terminal education in community institutes, junior colleges, and technical schools.

2. *The high school of the future will develop the common learnings program which is required for the unity of American life and culture.* The difficulty, yet importance, of achieving this unity is highlighted by a recent comment by Dorothy Thompson that "we can disintegrate the atom, but we have no notion of principles necessary to integrate societies in an atomic age."

Certainly a free society needs a ground of commonality. To secure unity, surely a people need to have enough in common to live together amicably, to prize the same values, to accept the same standards, to work together for similar goals, and assuredly, too, as J. Paul Leonard has pointed out, in an industrial society they need to be willing to accept a uniformity of products in return for a higher standard of living.

How the secondary school can best

promote the unity of American life and culture is an earnest issue in both theory and practice. Many schools still believe the traditional program will do it. A few are persuaded by the Hutchins-Alder-Barr approach and hope to find solutions through the backward look. A number of the schools find a hopeful sense of direction for a program of general education in the Harvard Report—*General Education for a Free Society*. An increasing number of teachers and administrators are convincing themselves that the common learnings core as proposed for Farmville and American City by the Educational Policies Commission in *Education for* All *American Youth* and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in *Planning for American Youth* is the program for the school of the future.

Space does not permit any elaboration upon these various approaches. The secondary school at work upon education for unity will address itself to two major questions: (1) By means of what subjects and experiences do we produce the needed unity? (2) How can general education or the common learnings be so adapted to different ages—to different abilities and outlooks—that it can appeal strongly to each, yet remain in goal and essential learning the same for all?

Answers to these questions will require the assiduous endeavor of all concerned with the secondary school over a number of years. Through experimentation and research, through cooperative undertakings within and between schools, through workshops sponsored by universities and by local school systems, through cooperative planning within the school day by teachers responsible for the learning of a group of pupils, to mention but a few of the means, progress will be made.

3. *The development of differences so highly prized in a free society will be a central concern of the secondary school of the future.* Improvements in living, progress in a scientific age, and much of economic and social advance stem from the creative contributions of individuals. In a democratic commonwealth the cultivation of individual goals, interests, abilities, and needs is deliberately encouraged. The goal of this stress upon creativeness and individuality is freedom.

Under this group of objectives we have the whole problem of what special education is needed for earning a livelihood. Of one thing we are increasingly certain in our technological era; namely, that the time needed for common learnings is ever longer and that specialized education should immediately precede its need and use by the individual.

It should also be understood that there is no competition between general education and vocational education on the one hand, or the common learnings and the differential learnings on the other. They are both important to the welfare of the individual and to the security of the republic.

General education should provide not only an adequate background against which an intelligent selection of a vocation can be made, but also

the sense of direction and the system of values against which a vocation can be truly evaluated.

The problem of the secondary school stems from the growing complexity of the occupational scene. An analysis of employed adults shows that less than 20 per cent are employed in occupations of a professional and technical nature that require extended periods of collegiate and university education. Again, not more than 20 per cent are engaged in the skilled and semi-skilled occupations that call for fairly extensive or extensive periods of training during the senior high school and junior college years. The majority of adults, therefore, are engaged in occupational pursuits that place a premium on general competency, but in which specific skills are learned on the job.

These facts seem to point up several questions which have a bearing upon secondary-school curricula and organization:

Is not a sound general education the best preparation for occupational life for the majority of youth?

May not the securing of proficiencies in work experiences be the most promising avenue of occupational adjustment for well over 50 per cent of youth?

Would it not be best to limit vocational training for the skilled occupations to the eleventh to fourteenth years of the secondary school?

Despite its shortcomings, is not the comprehensive or cosmopolitan high school the most promising type of secondary school in the matter of providing programs which meet these differences in aptitude, interest, ability, and need?

4. *The secondary school of the future will pursue a thorough program of pupil study and provide effective guidance services.* In a recent radio address a celebrated anthropologist compared the progress in the social sciences with that in the sciences by asserting that the social sciences were at the Babylonian period as compared with modern history. Without taking any issue with his studied observation, and with full recognition of the historical recency of the scientific study of human behavior, it seems to me sound to insist that we must sharply increase the time in secondary schools for studying our pupils.

The young science of psychology, the younger practice of psychiatry, and the development of observational techniques have provided us with sufficient technical and practical tools to make action for the benefit of pupils in secondary schools imperative. Sound programs of pupil study have been rightly termed the major strategy of guidance. As we move rapidly toward universal secondary education, the urgency of learning to know each youth as an individual is apparent to educationists and laymen alike.

By means of testing, observational techniques, interviews, anecdotal reports, comprehensive cumulative records, and similar instruments, many schools are studying their pupils. A thirty-hour testing program offered to pupils in one comprehensive high school is now being utilized by the

majority of its students on their own time. Here, then, we have an indication of what the high schools of the future will all do to study their pupil personnel not only as a total school group, but especially as individuals. Incidentally, it should be pointed out that in these future Farmvilles and American Citys every member of the professional staffs will manifest what Truman Lee Kelley long ago spoke of as "reverence for the ubiquity of the probable error."

It is clear that the pupil study emphasis calls for effective guidance services. To study the pupil and then make no provision for doing something about him is futile. By the same token, to provide counselors and other specialized guidance personnel without a thoroughgoing plan for learning to know the individual pupil is foolish. The secondary school of the future will provide guidance services which lead each pupil to conceive objectives that are meaningful and worthy for him, socially desirable, and attainable in the light of his background, ability, and development, and then help him to achieve these objectives.

5. *The secondary school of the future will evaluate its effectiveness in terms of how well it has developed the citizen of and for a free society.* It is encouraging to observe the earnest and widespread study in this field. National committees and commissions, state departments of education, city school systems, a number of lay groups, and many individuals are working steadily to find better answers to basic questions concerning education for citizenship. The sense of dissatisfaction with our past and current results in this field should make the years immediately ahead fruitful indeed. The present national concern over juvenile delinquency, the precarious position of the family in our postwar society, the apparent breakdown of ideals and values among so many adults are widely heralded as indices of the need for the revitalization of and the re-thinking of our program for citizenship education.

Throughout our history the school has sought to discharge its over-arching responsibility for the growth of the citizen in a democracy. The school of the future, because of almost 100 per cent enrollment of the age groups, its program of common learnings, its encouragement of individual initiative, and its effective guidance services, will be in a position to affect education for freedom more tellingly than ever before in our history. What will be the character of its emphases?

It will graduate youth who can state clearly the values of a free society. They will be able to do this with more facility and conviction than any protagonists of other forms of society and government in our rapidly shrinking world.

While recognizing the impossible assignment of teaching all the knowledge which is required for common and diversified needs, it will endeavor to create and develop in all youth an insatiable thirst for knowledge.

Realizing that in the area of human relations we learn what we do, what we act, it will stress the participative

processes both as a means and as an end in all phases of school work. Thus will it hope to produce citizens who are practiced in the arts of cooperation.

Knowing that to be free is precisely to be responsible, it will develop measures of social sensitivity and responsibility which will become the conscious goals of its students.

It will develop among all its pupils a sense of responsibility for using free time in ways which are socially rewarding. It will assume leadership responsibility in American life for developing a philosophy of leisure.

It will emphasize ethical and spiritual values and foster in its pupils a disposition to make up their minds about the basic values which underlie our way of life.

These are admittedly only a few of the characteristics of the citizenship education practices of the high school of the future, but they are indicative of emphases devoutly to be sought.

No one realizes more clearly than I that these five aspects of the high school of the future are selective rather than exhaustive. I have said nothing about the responsibility of the secondary school in teaching youth and adults to live together successfully in a small world and in fostering intercultural and interracial understanding. No mention has been made either of the genuine professional status of teachers in tomorrow's high schools, or of the adequate clerical service which they will have. Much might be said about the educational plant facilities, newer aids to instruction, and the details of the curriculum and teaching methods.

I am convinced, however, that the high school which moves progressively toward the objectives of the five large areas discussed above will perform all of these other important functions. Is it not an instance of seeking first things first?

The high school of the future has its roots firmly implanted in the present. It is, nonetheless, healthful and profitable to try to set our goals for tomorrow's secondary school. We see a school where all normal youth remain in senior high school with individual profit, where the needs of all youth are appropriately met and served. We see a school educating for unity by means of a program of general education, to be found most frequently as a common learnings core, and continuously vitalized and dynamic by reason of the cooperative undertaking of its teachers to that end. We see a school in search of uniqueness in every youth, strengthening desirable diversity through broad curricular provisions, particularly in the upper years of the secondary school, and thus consciously promoting freedom. We see a school which knows its youth as individuals, and in which by means of competent guidance service all are aided to formulate meaningful goals toward which each works with purpose. And, finally, we see a school which takes its greatest pride in the quality of the citizens it has nurtured. For these young citizens of our broad land will have had that practice in responsible action which will keep America strong and free.

Untapped Resources of School Boards

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THERE are untapped resources of school support right in the dooryard of every school board. They have been discovered and harnessed by a few venturesome boards, with results striking enough to be investigated by school boards generally.

Certainly school boards need additional help in dealing with the problems thrust upon them. Their task is growing in complexity annually. As the number of one-room school districts decreases, those which boast kindergartens, elementary schools, junior and senior high schools, junior colleges, and adult education programs are on the increase. Each new service added means another responsibility assumed by the board. How far the expansion of public education will go is difficult to predict, but we hear people talking with a straight face about public education from the cradle to the grave.

We must remember that for the past two decades the lot of local boards of education in this country has been particularly trying. During the depression years they were forced to cut budgets and teachers' salaries, curtail school services, and defer needed repairs of school buildings. Then, before they could really get back to that ephemeral "normal," along came the war with scarcities of materials and teachers. Again repairs and replacements had to be deferred. Nor did the longed-for postwar years offer much help. Instead, inflation hit us. The shortage of teachers continued and in some respects became more acute with the appearance of the bumper crop of war babies. During all these years school boards have been faced with a series of crises and have often been compelled to make unpopular decisions under the pressure of circumstances.

Those who value our pattern of local control of schools in this country realize that new sources of local support must be tapped; that something must be done to bolster the faith of our people in local boards of education; that herein lies the best insurance against drifting toward highly centralized school control. The practices reported here have been successful in demonstrating to people that many of their most important problems can be handled locally.

HARNESSING THE POWER OF THE PEOPLE

One source of strength too often neglected is the lay citizens of the community. Yet both research and experience have long shown that when-

ever people of the community are brought in to consider school problems cooperatively, beneficial results almost always accrue. For example, Mort's findings in his Pennsylvania Study showed that the two factors most directly associated with the quality of schools were the level of finance and the level of community understanding of what good schools are like. If the level of community understanding is high, good schools are likely to occur. If it is low, something must be done to improve it if substantial school improvement is desired. One of the best ways to increase the level of community understanding is to bring many, many people into the cooperative consideration of school problems and their possible solution.

Several illustrations of how this is being done might be cited. In Montclair, New Jersey, Superintendent A. L. Threlkeld conducts regular classes for parents in problems of school theory and practice. Teachers in that same system hold special sessions for parents for the purpose of explaining the various aspects of the educational program of the school. Another group of Montclair teachers made a Kodachrome filmstrip of scenes within the school system to illustrate important features of the school program. They then wrote a script to accompany the filmstrip and saw to it that illustrated talks were given before the chief public organizations within the community.

In Great Neck, Long Island, there is a Public Education Association formed of public-spirited citizens who are interested in their public schools. Organized at one time as a pressure group to bring about desired changes within the school system, the Association now cooperates wholeheartedly with the school board and administration and is considered a decided asset to the community.

More and more school boards are discovering that lay advisory committees on special problems pay big dividends in increased popular support. For example, in one Long Island town the board has set up an advisory committee on school–community relations. Several boards have authorized the superintendent to organize lay study groups to become familiar with the school budget as it is being developed from early fall to late spring. Such groups then attend the annual public hearing and usually support the budget more eloquently than does the superintendent.

Many boards are finding that a lay advisory committee can be extremely helpful in publicizing the facts concerning the need for a new building and a tremendous force in stirring up public sentiment in favor of the new bond issue.

Citizens can be used in other ways, too. Manhassett and Great Neck, Long Island, each maintain a Talent Register, a card index file in which are listed the names, addresses, telephone numbers, and special interests of its citizens. An inventory was made of the hobbies and special abilities of adult citizens who might be called upon to assist from time to time in the school program as the need arose. Laymen generally are

flattered to be asked to assist in classroom, club, or assembly activities, and it is little short of amazing to find out from such an inventory just what the resources of the people of the community are.

School boards which have tried out techniques like those mentioned above are discovering what most school people know already: A band concert or an operetta always draws a larger audience than does a school play. Since the most energetic ticket sellers to any school function are those who are participating in it, who would expect otherwise? Adult citizens are not much different. Get them working for the schools in some intelligent, stimulating way and far more support will be forthcoming than if they are neglected or—even worse—treated with "the-public-be-damned" attitude.

SCHOOL STAFF MEMBERS AS PART OF THE TEAM

The sources of power latent in a school staff are less well known and less widely used than community sources discussed above. And yet there is growing evidence that boards of education would do well to consider carefully the support they can obtain from this source. Thus far the power of initiative in this matter resides with the board and administration, but how long it will remain there is an open question.

Extensive studies of labor–management relations in business and industry give clues to the answer. Those studies show that when employees are treated with dignity, are given an opportunity to share in planning and determining goals, and are helped to understand the important part they play in the total enterprise, production goes up. From a few studies that have been made of the bases of teacher morale and the causes of teacher strikes, it appears that the kinds of conditions that upset teachers also disturb employees in business and industry.

For example, when Redmond[1] made his case study of the causes of teachers' strikes two years ago, he discovered that the basic factors were almost identical with those identified in labor–management investigations. He pointed out (1) the lack of channels of communication between the board and administration and the teacher groups; (2) either actual or imagined administrative ineptitude and unfairness; (3) the tendency of each group to get "too far out on a limb" to be able to get back without losing face; (4) lack of understanding by each group of the problems faced by the other.

Another study of factors influencing teacher morale, made by Braehm[2] with the cooperation of a large sample of school teachers in Northern New Jersey, supported the above findings of Redmond. One of the chief contributors to low morale pointed out in the Braehm study was dissatisfaction

[1] James Redmond, "Administration Factors Affecting Teacher Strikes," Type C project in fulfillment of requirements for Doctor of Education degree, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948.

[2] William A. F. Braehm, "An Investigation of the Significance of Morale Factors As Judged by 150 New Jersey School Teachers," Type C project in fulfillment of requirements for Doctor of Education degree, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948.

among the teachers with the handling of human relations or staff relations by the board and administration. Evidences of partiality, unfairness, or peremptory, dictatorial treatment were mentioned.

While it cannot be proved as easily in education as in industry that high morale and high productivity tend to go together, there are few people who will doubt that a happy, well-adjusted staff which works like a team produces better educational results than the reverse. Can boards of education, then, afford not to inquire into principles and practices of good personnel management which would strengthen staff morale? In fact, it can be argued that it is a waste of the taxpayer's dollar not to profit in this way.

The initiative in this respect still lies with local school boards, but it may not always remain there. Those who have had occasion to work with numbers of local teachers' associations during the past few years have noted unmistakable signs of resentment toward administration and school boards. Last year at Teachers College we conducted an evening's conference on the role of the local teachers' association, to which presidents and executive committees of such associations in the three-state area of New Jersey, New York, and Connecticut as were within reasonable commuting distance of New York City were invited. We expected about thirty or thirty-five people to attend, but were amazed to have a crowd of more than one hundred and fifty, representing about sixty local associations. An attitude of resentment toward administration and school boards was evident in this group. There was a feeling on the part of these individuals that they had not been dealt fairly with by boards of education and administration in general. There seemed to be almost a hunger for someone to champion their cause. Incidentally, they apparently did not feel that such championing was going to come from either their state or their national association leaders.

Whatever may be said about this situation, it is quite apparent that the field is ripe for progress in either of two directions. On the one hand, we can see the development of strong local teachers' unions with administrators excluded. These local teachers' unions could then be pulled together on a state and national basis by "strong" leadership. If this happens—and it can happen—we are likely to see the same sort of labor–management strife in education that we have been witnessing in industry. And there is no evidence that legislation banning strikes by teachers and other public employees is a sound approach to this problem, as has been recently demonstrated by the trouble with city employees in Yonkers, New York. On the other hand, boards of education and administrators can take the initiative in bringing local teachers' associations into the total educational family in a constructive way which will tend to break down what appears to be a barrier between administration and the teaching staff.

This latter possibility is no idle dream. It has been accomplished and is being accomplished in a number of

school systems. Below are described several kinds of activities that have been going on. These practices are not new, but they do indicate an increasing interest in the development of an *esprit de corps* in the school staff in which the lines between administration and teachers tend to be minimized. In one school system the board has authorized the superintendent to establish an Education Council composed of a high school principal, a representative of the elementary school principals, teacher representatives elected from each school building, and the president of the local teachers' association. This group assembles with the superintendent of schools once or twice a month to discuss school problems and school policy in order to make recommendations to the board of education or to bring about needed changes within existing policy.

In several other school systems each board of education has agreed to devote one half of its meetings to discussions of educational matters other than usual board business. Into those meetings representatives of the school staff are brought as resource people and to join in the discussion with the superintendent and the board. For example, if the matter of student health is being considered, the school physician, school nurse, school psychologist, if any, a building principal, a health and physical education teacher, and a classroom teacher or so are involved in the discussion.

In a school system which experienced a teacher strike some time ago, a new superintendent of schools coming into the system has cultivated the teachers' association, encouraging it to organize a series of meetings involving the administration, school board, and citizens to discuss the proper service that a local teachers' association can perform in the community. It is interesting to note that this particular local association was eager for that kind of encouragement. It had come to realize that attention to salary problems and its own immediate welfare was a too shortsighted conception of the association's function, and that its members should begin to consider what they could do for the cause of education in that community as a whole.

It seems apparent that there is a powerhouse of energy residing in local teachers' associations, waiting and ready to be tapped by boards of education and administrators for the total good. Attempts to suppress and combat it are likely to have about the same effect as "union-busting" activities in the labor–management field. Whether or not we like it, we are due to see a continuing trend toward increasing organization on the part of classroom teachers and other school employees. The question is, are we as administrators, and are boards of education going to take leadership in channeling that energy in desirable ways? We may as well recognize that as teachers become better and better trained and more professional minded they are going to expect to become involved to a greater extent in helping formulate policy for the school system.

This is not to suggest that the board will abrogate its function of legisla-

tion and policy formation. It is rather to say that boards will no longer be thought of as dictators from on high, but, as one prominent superintendent expressed it recently—a man, by the way, who was at one time president of the American Association of School Administrators—the newer function of the board of education is, in a sense, that of a jury to hear proposals on school policy from several sources, community, staff members, administration, and pupils wherever appropriate and then to decide, as is their legal duty, what seems to them best for the school system as a whole. Experience with this newer conception of the role of the board of education indicates that it is fundamentally sound.

AIDING THE SUPERINTENDENT TO BE A SUPERINTENDENT

How effectively are boards utilizing the resources represented by the superintendent of schools? There is considerable evidence that we need to rethink this matter. A group of distinguished superintendents were recently called together at Teachers College to discuss just what the job of the superintendent really is, and how it has been developing over the years. There was unanimous agreement in the group that the job has been changing during the past ten or twenty years. It, like that of the board, has been becoming more complex. New and greater demands have been placed upon the position.

The superintendent is no longer merely a supervisor of classroom teaching. He is now rather to be considered a kind of social engineer, or coordinator and director of social forces within the community as they affect the total educational program. Unfortunately, however, the staffing of the superintendent's office has not increased to keep abreast of the demands placed upon the position. In a good many smaller communities he is business manager, personnel director, coordinator of instruction and even, in many places, acts as principal in addition to being executive officer of the board. Even the most superficial kind of job analysis would indicate that the burden which he is attempting to carry is literally an impossible one. Soundly organized businesses would not dream of placing upon their chief executives the mass of detail and clerical duties that is the daily concern of most superintendents of education. It is a wonder that school systems have progressed as far as they have with their chief executives so bound down to routine. Here, again, it can safely be argued that so to use a trained, experienced superintendent is a waste of the taxpayers' money.

How, then, shall the superintendent be utilized most effectively? Obviously he needs more help, especially with lower level, routine clerical tasks. We need to reconsider the rule-of-thumb that the General Control part of the current expense budget should be only around 4 per cent of the total. It may well be that that percentage should be increased.

Additional clerical and secretarial help is appropriate, but more than that he needs additional professional help.

Yet there are many small school systems which probably correctly feel that they cannot afford to have an assistant superintendent or so.

Here are some tried and proved suggestions for school systems, whether large or small. In the first place, since problems come in cycles and change from year to year, some boards retain the services of outside consultants on special problems such as salaries, building problems, curriculum revisions and so on, as the need arises. These consultants bring in their specialized knowledge to help and thus relieve the superintendent of some of the burden. The beauty of this scheme is that no one assistant or superintendent could possibly encompass all the resources supplied by a series of specialists.

A promising development which bears careful watching is the internship program for educational administrators. We at Teachers College have had several years of experience now with assigning to superintendents of schools young, relatively inexperienced men training to become administrators. These young men serve as interns and carry the title of assistant to the superintendent. We have been able to show that in addition to learning things these young men are performing excellent service to their host school system. Why not establish a national program of educational administrative internships under the joint supervision of colleges and universities giving professional training and the American Association of School Administrators? It would be comparatively easy to determine the replacement needs of the profession throughout the country, to limit the total number involved in the internship to a reasonable figure, and then to farm out such interns to school systems where they would be needed and would receive a modest salary. It would be understood that at the end of a one- or two-year internship they would be given a certificate signed jointly by the college which trained them and the AASA, indicating their eligibility for an administrative post in a school system other than where they interned.

But whatever the details of the plan would be, the internship offers a means for a local board to add to its superintendent's staff without at the same time committing itself permanently to additional personnel in the form of assistant superintendents. This it can do, too, at only a fraction of the cost of a regularly employed assistant superintendent.

By thus relieving the superintendent himself of many of his routine, clerical duties; by employing consultants as needed; and by setting up an internship to assist him, we enable him to operate more as an educational statesman within the community.

The argument herein presented is that local control of education as it operates through boards of education in this country is a precious heritage and must be preserved. Local control can be strengthened in various ways, financially, legally, and so on. But there are relatively untried sources of strength which each board can tap in the community, the school staff, and the superintendent.

Flexibility and Purpose in School Practice

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A good many things we once took for granted have had to be reassessed during our lifetimes. Our area of certainty has been reduced so drastically that, since 1900, new generalizations have become necessary to take into account the altered world in which we live. Two of these generalizations have particular significance for school people: (1) the world is changing in all sorts of ways and at unprecedented speed, and (2) we have to *accept* the fact that people differ.

It is not difficult to accept these twentieth century generalizations as true; in fact, their impact cannot be avoided. There is literally a whole world of evidence to support the first, and our struggle with the second accounts for a large number of our domestic difficulties. However true they are, they are none the less uncomfortable. Most of us were brought up assuming that the world and the people in it were relatively stable—that there was a good deal we could rely on. Our schools did not prepare us for a changing world, or for accepting differences.

FLEXIBILITY IS ESSENTIAL

We know better now. We know that children have to grow up in a rapidly changing world, and we have tried to alter our educational plans and practices accordingly. But schools have traditions that antedate the teachers in them, and ways of doing things tend to continue by inertia. As teachers, we still do a good many things just because we have always done them. They are parts of the school structure; they are among the "good old" parts of society. In a changing world, many of us cling to old habits simply because they are symbols of a continuity we wish existed in all aspects of living. But we cannot afford to indulge ourselves in this way. We know of course that we must have some organization in the schools, we must have some system for handling large numbers of children, we must have ways of working. But the organizations, the systems, the ways must be *flexible* if they are to meet the differing needs of individual children who are to be educated for a changing world.

This flexibility is essential because we want children to make the most of their individual capacities. We know that when we are rigid with them, we endanger their best development. Many children learn to dislike arithmetic, for example, because it is

not keyed to their abilities and interests.

Classroom practices must be flexible, too, if they are to be thought-provoking. We want children to use good judgment in meeting new situations, and we want to help them to develop confidence in their own judgment, by demanding of them that they think, in all kinds of practical situations. To take advantage of such situations whenever they occur in the schools, our practices must be flexible enough for us to seize the opportunities when they appear.

Increasing understanding of the requirements of good mental hygiene demands that classroom practices be flexible, so that we may avoid aggravating what would otherwise be minor maladjustments.

Educators agree, therefore, that the modern school must be flexibly administered. They agree that classroom practices must be flexible—they must not crystallize. Flexibility must be characteristic of our whole educational enterprise.

THE PLACE OF PURPOSE

But flexibility is a means, not an end; we can be flexible only to the degree that we see our purposes clearly. To the degree that we do not see our purposes clearly, we must tend toward either rigidity or chaos. Rigid reliance on a system leads to revolution; experimentation without purpose leads to chaos.

Human purposes are as diverse as humanity itself, but they have this in common: in order to be achieved, they must be conceived as human behavior. When we achieve our goals, we are *doing* what we intended to do. If we want children to become successful citizens in a democratic society, we must be able to describe what such citizens do. Our difficulty in interpreting the concept of education for world citizenship is precisely that we do not know what a world citizen would do. He would do some of the things characteristic of a member of the diplomatic corps, a member of the UN secretariat, a mercenary soldier, a missionary, but no combination of characteristics of these groups of people will produce a world citizen, because the sum of such characteristics would be as mythical as the "average man."

Similarly, education for family life is hampered by the inadequacy of our behavioral norms. The behaviors necessary for economic competence are associated with so many conflicting values that a clear-cut program has thus far been impossible.

RIGIDITY AND PURPOSE

Where purposes are not seen in behavioral terms, where lists of moral precepts and galaxies of virtues are taken as definitions of purpose, practice tends to be either rigid or diffuse. Rigidity can be explained in several ways, according to the nature of its relationship to the purpose the rigid practice is intended to achieve.

An array of relatively rigid practices may have to be relied on when purposes cannot be understood thoroughly, not because the practices will carry us unerringly to the achievement of our purpose, but because the practices provide a way of working which

has proved useful on the whole in carrying us in a desirable direction. Most actions fall in this category. The McGuffey Readers owed some of their longevity to a belief that the moralizing in these books had some unappraised but desirable effect on the future conduct of the children who read them. Most of our routine patriotic observances are continued for the same reason. Insistence that children complete assignments is justified in large measure by the belief that in so doing they are somehow learning to behave in a responsible manner. We tend toward rigidity in practices when our purposes are vague, however good they may be.

Some of our modern liberal educational goals are dimly perceived by people who have adopted a sort of dogmatic "liberalism" which shows itself (among other ways) in rigid commitment to some particular educational plan, formula, or method. To the extent that we see cooperative planning, for example, as a fixed series of steps, from problem census to action proposal, we are unnecessarily rigid in practice. In many social studies plans, one kind of rigid sequence has simply been replaced with another. Instead of the students' having to study the geography of the United States in grade 6, they have to study housing, let us say. A fixed sequence of units of study, whether the units be the late and unlamented third grade Indians, followed by the fourth grade Westward Movement, Water Supply, Housing sequence, or some other sequence, we are being rigid in a way that is related to failure to achieve a thoroughgoing understanding of what any social studies sequence is intended to achieve: independence and competence in societal affairs.

Certainly we are confusing means and ends when we become concerned with "overlapping" subject matter units. Such an area as "Our Town" is certainly big enough for children to study more than once. If "The World" is big enough to demand the attention of statesmen and scholars for whole lifetimes, children can study it for more than the few weeks often allotted to it. The concern for overlapping subject matter is almost entirely the result of a limited view of the experiences involved in such subject matter. Such concern is a certain indication that the children's experience will be confined to what can be read in a few books, and that is not enough, even though the books may be concerned with the latest thing—with Diesel freight engines and jet planes, for example. The famous and telling cartoon of the frustrated kindergartener asking his teacher, "Do we *have* to do what we want to do?" is an appropriate commentary on over-rigidity based on confused modern purposes.

The nonsensical situation in which important ideas in modern education are reduced to the status of fads is the result of reducing practices based on half understood ideas to a ridiculous rigidity. Changing one's way of working with children solely because the present way is considered old-fashioned is to move deliberately from order to chaos. Unless there has been a reconstruction of the goals being

sought, there certainly can be no point in the reorganization of methods. Nobody is asking for change for the sake of change. Reduced to their simplest terms, the demands of modern education are that the aims or purposes of education be as clearly stated as possible, and that we develop educational practices clearly appropriate to our purposes.

Of course much rigid practice is based on tradition and nothing more. The fact that a traditional practice may have outlived its usefulness is often difficult to perceive. Consider, for example, the elaborate justifications of ability grouping which continue to appear in educational journals. Ability grouping was a device calculated to achieve more effectively the purposes of a 3 R's curriculum. This purpose has been so greatly broadened as to amount to a new purpose, but the practice associated with it continues. It is justified in some recent accounts as contributing to good mental health in the classroom! Again, consider the closing of schools during the summer. In the rural society of a century ago this practice was necessary, it is said, but what conceivable educational purpose can justify it now? Flexibility, considered as response to changed conditions, would necessitate altering these practices.

When our practices are rigid, it is assumed that the child is flexible. In fact, in some schools the term "flexible" is not appropriate to apply to a child; he is considered "malleable." He is to be *molded* into some pattern. In the most rigid schools the child is treated as if he were a fluid to be poured into a vessel, and it is believed that he will assume the shape of the vessel. Certainly this is the assumption that prevails in military schools.

In such rigid schools the value of routine is very high. It is safe to say that to the extent that routine is valued for itself, the purposes of the school are definitely bad because they militate against the development of good judgment. We do not expect children to think critically about a routine. We ask of them only that they accept it, not that they think about it. True, they may think about their acceptance of the routine—that is, they may weigh the consequences of acceptance or nonacceptance—but they may not think about the routine itself. Once a routine is established, thinking regarding it must stop. This is not to say that routines are not necessary; it is only to say that they are not productive of critical thinking. Where the values of conformity are sought, some routine is necessary.

CHAOS AND PURPOSE

Chaos is another product of confusion of purpose. We have a truly chaotic classroom when the teacher and the children try to achieve confused purposes in an inconsistent manner. The best and simplest illustration of this is in the classroom of the teacher who literally does not know what he is doing. His class is chaotic precisely because he does not know what he wishes children to become in any behaviorally defined way and because he has no confidence in (or measure of) the effectiveness of his ways of

working. He may, therefore, resort to ways of working which have conflicting assumptions and yield conflicting results. It is because he does not see his purposes clearly that he fails to exploit the methods of work that he has adopted. He finds it impossible to be consistent, for he has no working principles.

A good many teachers adopt rigid practices simply to avoid chaos. Many beginning teachers fear a disorderly classroom more than they aspire toward a sound educational classroom situation. Therefore, they resort to devices for keeping the children in order. Desks are lined up and fastened to the floor to reduce the temptation for the children to talk to one another. The desks are faced toward the teacher as if the classroom were an auditorium. Systems of automatic rewards for orderly behavior are set up—the row of children dismissed (released?) first at the end of the school day is the one which was orderly, quiet, and clean. Penalties are set up to compel children to follow some rigid form in writing, including "last name first at the top left corner of the first sheet."

Probably too many teachers continue this petty tyranny long after their fear of chaotic classrooms has vanished. They do not relax the little rigidities because they have forgotten why they set them up; if challenged to explain them, they seek good educational justification—"children must learn to be orderly," or "children feel secure when they can depend on routines," or "children must respect the teacher's authority." All of these are to some extent true, but the contributions of these particular forms of rigidity to them remains questionable, to say the least. And the little rigid practices stand squarely in the way of important learnings that children might acquire—learnings concerning the value of group thinking, the relationship between neat penmanship and communication, the possibility of cooperative attention (rather than joint submission to the teacher) in the matter of group behavior.

FLEXIBILITY AND PURPOSE

Rigidity and chaos in practice derive from confusion or obscurity of purpose. Flexibility is achieved as purposes are more clearly perceived. But some clearly perceived purposes are too narrow. A teacher who worked with underprivileged children in a low socio-economic section of a city believed that on the whole the most important thing for her to do with her sixth grade children was to teach them to spell. By "spell" she meant, specifically, acquiring the ability to pass a spelling test—to spell correctly a dictated list of words. Those who knew her were amazed at the flexibility she practiced in achieving this purpose. The children were taught to spell in every situation that occurred during the school day. They spelled their social studies material; during their play periods, their Red Cross project, their lunch time, their art classes, everything had to be spelled. And they used every known method, and invented some ingenious methods of their own, to achieve the purpose. Of course they

passed spelling tests with flying colors. Too narrow a purpose? Perhaps, but the precision with which it was defined, and the children's acceptance of it, left the teacher and the children free to be as flexible as can be imagined.

Some clearly conceived purposes are inappropriate; for example, teaching primitive cultures to eight-year-olds. Some other clearly conceived purposes are bad, as in schools which teach unswerving obedience to a leader, an elite group, or authority (be it the scientist, the teacher, or the state). Some bad goals appear good, even to adults. A bad educational purpose is, of course, any purpose that blocks intelligent inquiry.

However, we need not be overwhelmed by the knowledge of our ignorance. We know enough to be far more flexible than we are. If the large purpose of the social studies program is to help children to behave more effectively in many social situations, it does not follow that they should go through a program with a fixed sequence, parroting facts. They do not have to "move" from the neighborhood to the world at large, or from the past to the present, or from the present to the past. We can use all kinds of situations, all the time, for our large purpose. We need not be blocked by some particular categorizing of children's interests; we know that children are interested at the same time in the near and the remote, the past and present and future, the real and the imaginary. What we want is that the children learn to understand the significance of these; it does not follow that the children should therefore go through a formally logical analysis of space, or time, or the real versus the ideal, in the guise of a "modern" program.

Children learn to read in many ways. Not all of them must read a single set of graded readers, however carefully constructed the books may be. Some children teach themselves to read; some learn better through their hands than through their eyes. All of us have seen children reading material far beyond their "reading level" in order to gain necessary information. Should we keep difficult materials out of their reach? And why shouldn't they read "easy" material a good deal of the time? Is their pleasure a waste of time? We can be far more flexible in our handling of reading materials than we are, especially when we relate reading to large educational purposes, instead of restricting our purposes to the passing of reading tests.

It is just as essential that the grouping of children be flexible in order to meet various purposes as it is that we have clear purposes as a condition for flexibility in instructional practices. Most writers are now asking for such flexibility. In a recent study [1] conducted by the present writer, it was found that some gains in the acceptance of differences are derived from grouping children of different ages together. Other values can be achieved by bringing together children of like

[1] A. Wellesley Foshay, "Interage Grouping." Unpublished Doctor of Education project report on file in Teachers College Library.

interests; still others ("misery loves company") can be achieved when children of similar limitations are brought together. [2] But no one of these methods of grouping suits all purposes; we must have flexible groups to meet differing purposes.

The organization of the school day and the school year can be much more flexible than it often is. When you stop to think of it, why should the school bell ring so often? Why should it ring at all? Would a clock be better? Why should elementary children all have recesses at the same time? Is it really impossible for classes to have free play periods on a more individual basis? Why should classes not stay in session for an hour and a half, or two hours, or half an hour, if what they are doing seems to demand that kind of time allotment? A routine division of the school day has no virtue of itself.

What is true for social studies, reading, and administrative arrangements is true for other practices. We can be more flexible than we are, provided we know what we seek to do. The essential quality of every change that is made—every "flexing"—is that the purpose be behaviorally defined. At its root, flexibility involves perception rather than mere adaptation. Those who consider flexible school practice as being primarily a modification of present practice to meet new needs are overlooking this kind of conception of purpose.

This whole question of flexibility in classroom practice has important implications for teachers and curriculum makers. It implies strongly that we must continue devoting our efforts to two large ends: (1) increasingly precise statement of purposes in behavioral terms, (2) sharper delineation of the assumptions behind present practices. We must continue asking "why" at the same time that we ask "what." We must recognize that radical departures from present methods cannot be undertaken except as they follow from radically reconstructed purpose. We must recognize that flexibility is not an end in itself, but only a description of the behavior of people who have defined their purposes in terms of desirable behavior. We cannot escape the necessity for clearly conceived guiding principles. As teachers, we must continue to seek satisfactory answers to the question, "What is it that we want the children to be doing?"

[2] H. L. Caswell, *Education in the Elementary School.* New York: American Book Co., 1942. pp. 227-28.

Scientific Study of Educational Aims

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Is education really a science? If so, to what extent, and to which group of sciences does it belong? Many theoreticians in the field of education, influenced by philosophical neo-idealism, see in education an applied philosophy. They emphasize the problems of educational aims and ideas and focus educational research around these problems.

Another group, which includes many American scholars, seems to see in education a bio-social process of adjustment, and is inclined to overlook the problem of aims. The description of the process and the analysis of its factors is, from its point of view, the all-important issue. Science is a study of things as they are and avoids the "what-should-be" problem.

There are also some who deny that education is a science at all. To them it is more an art or a skill than a science.

Before this problem can be further discussed it must be made clear that *everything* can be subject matter for a scientific research, independent of the nature of the subject. If, let us say, the educational practice is nothing but art or skill, there is still room for scientific study of this skill.

Education is an activity, and activities can be studied from two angles. The first is usual for all sciences: to study the subject as it is, and to analyze it in order to derive some generalizations. The theory of education is a science which tries to get all the possible data concerning education in the past and in the present and to get acquainted with the major factors involved: the educated, the educator, and the educative process. This is a *descriptive* science, like botany or chemistry or sociology. The scope of the descriptive study of education is very broad, for it has to cover all the knowledge concerning the object of education: the child, his psychology and his social surroundings. It has to deal with the educator, the parent, the teacher, and the society as educational factors. It has to study the *process* of education, the educator-educated interrelations, the laws of learning, the problems of teaching. Within the scope of this descriptive science are contained comparative education and the history of education. The psychological and social foundations, together with the comparative and historical studies, make up the descriptive science of education.

Auguste Comte would not agree with the purely descriptive and analytic tasks of any human science. It was his belief that science must help to

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anticipate developments (*savoir pour prévoir*). It must be admitted that any human activity can be improved by understanding the underlying mechanism. Educational activities are *purposeful* and they aim at achieving certain goals. The study of education cannot be, therefore, solely descriptive.

Should a scientist be allowed to cross this dangerous frontier? Can he remain a scientist while he is dealing with problems of "what should be"?

PRAXIOLOGY

The educational scientist is not alone in this difficult position. He shares the fate of scientists in the areas of medicine, agronomy, economics, or politics. The goal of all these scientists is to influence human activities, to direct them and to improve them. Theirs are *praxiologic* tasks, highly different from the descriptive ones. All their research is based on descriptive data, but is not confined to them. They all try to define "what should be": how to keep healthy, what to do with infertile soil, how to organize a government, and so on. They derive their "norms" or "practical aims or devices" from the descriptive studies which precede the praxiological studies of "what and how to do." The usefulness of these practical, applied, praxiological theories depends upon and correlates highly with the soundness of their respective descriptive studies.

Division of educational science into the descriptive and the praxiologic may not necessarily influence the research method. If education is to remain among the empirical sciences, the empirical research method has to be applied.

To simplify the problem let us take for granted that the empirical research methods are fully justified. This is, no doubt, rather a courageous assumption, for there is much room to criticize the experimental and statistical methods used now in educational research. Anyway, let the educational praxiology become as scientific as the descriptive one. It would be, doubtless, a big step forward if we could study the "what-should-be" problems by the scientific tools used in descriptive studies. This would satisfy even the far-reaching criticism of scientists like David Hume, who demanded that science deal with facts and numbers solely.

Let us further divide the praxiological theory of education into its two logical parts: the first one dealing with "what should be." We shall call this part teleology (*telos* — end), which deals with educational aims. The term "normative" would be, perhaps, preferable to many, but norms can be used in the sense of means too—norms to achieve something—so it may be better to use clear-cut divisions: teleology deals with aims, and studies the problem of what kind of goals must be set for education. [4]

After the goal has been set, there is still the problem of ways and means of attaining it. The question is how to achieve the goal. Not *what* should be, but *how* this is to be done. This is the broad scope of the second part of educational praxiology: this is educational *technology*, a study of educational

ways and means. In this discussion only the teleology will be considered.

OMITTING A PROBLEM OR SOLVING IT

To set a goal for human activity is by no means difficult. Everybody does it every day. But all these goals are subjectively set and their objectivity does not have to be proved.

The difficulty begins with the scientific and objective approach to the problem, when the objective studies have to answer the "what-should-be" question.

Bagley [1] tried to minimize the importance of this question in education. What is, for example, the relationship between the teaching of reading and the general aim of education? How can the difference in the aims influence the daily routine of teaching?

This question may be answered as follows: As the educational activities are purposeful, the educational purpose cannot remain unrelated to them. For achieving a definite aim definite methods should be used. There is still a logical possibility of attaining a definite goal by more than one method. It is incorrect to say "all roads lead to Rome," or even worse, "the way from New York to Chicago and to Rome is the same." If the goals are near each other they can be attained, probably, in similar ways. Other thinkers, Claparede, for example, gave up the idea of setting aims at all. Says Claparede, "A science has to study what's going on and cannot help in furnishing ideals." [4] Freeman says, "Science can evaluate the means but not the ends." [7]

Omitting a problem cannot be identified with solving it, and belittling a question is not the same as answering it. The question of educational ends should not be treated as a negligible one. Giving up the attempt to solve this problem means giving up any reasonable evaluation of different educational systems. Moreover, it endangers any scientific *measurement* of educational efforts. The educational efforts should be measured for the extent to which the respective goals were achieved, but if the goals are wholly subjective and unmeasurable, what is the point of finding out how far someone satisfies his capricious, changing, or irrational aims?

ETHICAL AIMS

Herbart [10], the first systematic and scientific thinker in education, tried to solve this rather difficult problem by two a priori assumptions: first, that the educational process is a part of the human life and has, therefore, to aim at the same goal. This idea was tacitly accepted, identifying the eventual goal of education with a presumably existing general goal of the human life. The second assumption was that the ethical goal is the aim of human beings.

Herbart fought all his life against Kant's influence [20]; nevertheless, his theories reveal an unconscious subjugation to Kant. Kant based his educational theory on the "inner" development from anomy through heteronomy toward moral autonomy. For

Kant, the interrelation of ethics and education is obvious, and a Kantian philosopher sees in the theory of education an applied ethics. [11] Herbart, in his esthetic theory of ethics, subjugates all educational action to his somewhat dogmatic "five ethical ideas."

Both Kant's and Herbart's reasoning need further proof. It has still to be proved that human life has any purpose at all. The hormic psychology is a very interesting working hypothesis, but it has not been proved and probably cannot be. There is still less proof that morals are the ultimate end of human development. In history this has never been proved, and the highly hypothetical Hegelian interpretation of history never went over the border line of some occasional and rather inaccurate historical generalizations. [2]

Then, even if we accept the theory that the life of an individuum or of mankind as a whole tends toward moral perfection, there are still questions: What is this moral principle? Can it be stated in a dogmatic way? If not, in what other way? Where are the objective statements of moral issues? How can ethics be proved?

Fries [8] tried to solve the problem by translating John Dewey's definition of science into this difficult area. According to Dewey, if science is a "self-corrective inquiry," and "all the various abstractions of science are idea-instruments for concrete physical control," even ethical judgment can be "relative yet objectively formulated."

But even this attempt to simplify the problem by analogy seems not to be very successful. Two tacit assumptions were made without being proved: first, that the method of analogy should be used here. This has to be proved, for analogous reasoning has often been misleading. (The misleading analogy between physics and education was discredited by W. H. Kilpatrick. [12]) Scientific research tries to discover things as they are, while ethical judgments deal with what should be, and the analogy between these two purposes seems not to be very close. There is room to question how far ethics can be self-correcting through "improving physical control." Can ethics improve the concrete physical control? If this were the case, it would be very reassuring.

So, even if we accept Dewey's principles of science, we are still far from any answer to the question as to how ethical judgments can be objectively stated and confirmed.

Even less satisfactory seems to be the reasoning of some European thinkers. Jonas Cohen [5] maintains that education has to be based on ethical norms, for education uses some compulsion against the child, and compulsion needs to be risked. These norms have to be derived from the general *value* or *aim* of education. So, the ethical justification has to be based on the general educational end. But how define this end?

SELF-PURPOSIVENESS

Education cannot fix any goals, says Dilthey [6], it must *find* them. The development of mankind aims at perfection. Our emotions are teleological, and

these are the motors of human progress. Dilthey hopes in this way to bridge the gap between what *is* and what *should be*. The present develops into the future on the lines of purposiveness, and the present contains the seeds of the future. The educational goal has to be discovered in the process of human development. The educational goal is, therefore, immanent, and is included in the educational activities which are purposeful and aim at this goal.

The same idea is found in E. Krieck's [13] educational philosophy. Krieck assumes the inner purposiveness of the spirit. This entelechy of spirit includes education. The "objective spirit" (remember Hegel) is self-developing toward perfection and is the real educational goal.

These two theories need some substantiation. The self-purposiveness of education could be proved only by a strict application of Rousseau's system. Let us leave a child alone and wait for the outcome. If he develops without any intervention, the "self-aim" theories of Dilthey and Krieck will be proved. If Dilthey's theory is correct, education should be reduced to psychotherapy, dealing with pathological cases which need correction, for a normal child develops toward normal adulthood without any assistance.

VALUES

The philosophers of education cannot sit down and rely on the "inner development" and immanent goals. They have to set the goals for education, to enable the practitioners to do their work well and the theoreticians to evaluate the results. In the studies on this topic made in the last two decades "value" was mentioned not only in connection with ethics. Rather some general idea of human achievements was intended in this expression, following Windelband's definitions: science has laws, *Geisteswissenschaft* has values. [18]

According to Eucken, Budde, and the neo-idealists, the aim of education is "to prepare the man to take part in approaching the world of spiritual values." The values can be systematized, as was apparently done by many thinkers who classified them into "real" and "ideal" values. Rickert maintains that values are the basic form even in epistemology. [14]

There were many systems of values, and it is useless for a philosopher of education to criticize them before measuring their usefulness for the purpose of his studies. In the development of sciences, clarification of a term used or abused often proved to be a very important step forward.

"Values" can be defined in three different ways: first, as objective ideas; second, as utilitarian evaluation judgments; third, as cultural achievements.

The first definition seems to go back to Platonian ideas, dealing with values as abstract conceptions, independent of any human experience. Plato derived his ideas from generalizations made by Socrates and ascribed to them the attribute of independent existence. This far-reaching theory of Platonian ideas has been a subject of much interesting speculation, beginning with Philo's

wonderful conception of the world. "*Der objektive Geist*" in the German idealistic philosophy has the same Platonian origin. Nevertheless, Plato's theory has been dogmatic, its application by mediaeval "Realists" dogmatic too, and there is literally no way to prove it or to find any kind of evidence supporting it. It could be used as a working hypothesis if it were workable, but the attitude of nominalists in the *universalia* discussion seems to be much stronger and more useful from a methodological point of view. So there is no reason for a philosopher of education to go back to "objective" ideas, the existence of which he cannot prove.

Another possible explanation is that of *utilitarian judgment*. It may be structured as follows: Someone says this and this is valuable. Then we have to discriminate between emotional and utilitarian evaluations. The emotional evaluation is the expression of attitude: "This has a value" means "I like it, it has value for me." The utilitarian evaluation should be understood as a statement of *usefulness* from the point of view of some goal: this is valuable means it may serve to achieve some *goal*.

The value does not satisfy our need to understand what should be done. The value can only add a new link to the chain: this and this is worth while for it leads toward a definite end. The end itself needs evidence and the value is dependent upon the end which has to be set.

There is still another possibility of setting values in a dogmatic way. A system of values can be well set a priori, without evidence. In the discussion concerning the so-called *Kultur-wissenschaft* Rickert tried to make a distinction between them and *Naturwissenschaft*.

This solution may raise twofold objections. First, from a methodological point of view there is no reason to set some axiomatic system of values. Moreover, those who will set another system of values will oppose any system but theirs. Anyway, the objectivity and validity of the whole procedure must be questioned.

Values are believed to be the total of cultural achievements. The treasury of human thoughts, arts, and sciences has to be the all-embracing value, and the educational aims have to be in accordance with this value.

Nobody can deny that education transmits cultural values from past generations to forthcoming ones. However, some criticism with regard to this definition may be justified. Humanity has accomplished a vast amount in past centuries in all fields of civilization. How can the sum of these efforts serve as an educational goal? Are all these achievements still valid, important, and recognized as valuable? What about scientific theories which disappeared and lost their importance—the phlogiston theory, alchemy, Linneus' classification of species, and Aristotle's theory of the human soul, for example? Should all these theories be included in the system of values and be obligatory for educators?

What should be the criterion for including or excluding values? No-

body would suggest including everything and making the total of human creation the all-embracing educational value. Some selection would be advisable, and some gradation of the selected values would make them more suitable for educational purposes. There should be some selection and classification to decide which cultural values are more important, which of little importance and which should be omitted.

A further objection to any theory of values may be raised from a methodological point of view. All theories of educational values establish some definite ends for education without taking into account the educators. The different theories of values may have their roots in ethics or philosophy and they attempt to impose their respective reasonings on education. There is a danger of setting some unachievable goals for the educational activities, for the philosopher or theologist is not necessarily connected with or influenced by the educational realities. The most important factors of education—the child and his social environment—are likely to be omitted. The educational aims, based on some values theory, derived from some philosophical system, may have nothing in common with the child's abilities and social possibilities, not to mention the needs of the child and the aims of the society. The whole educational system, influenced by some ideas from the outside, may be contrary to the child's nature and the social structure, and may be out of touch with real life. This has been the case more than once in the history of education. Criticism by Pestalozzi or Dewey of contemporary education can be cited in this case. This erroneous way of looking for patterns outside of a given system often impeded scientific progress.

An additional question may be raised as to the objectivity of any system of values. Someone may claim that the objectivity is not essential in this issue. Let us take the other possibility: every thinker depends on his own education, attitudes, and beliefs and will form his own system of values. Or each social group, economic class, political party, faction, or religious sect will do it. They do it, they do it very often, but they should not claim to do it in a scientific way.

THE CAUSAL METHOD

Obviously, science cannot set goals for human activities. Science has to study what *is*, what *has* been done, and cannot decide what *should* be done. This decision has to be made by man as an emotional, non-scientific being.

But scientific methods can, perhaps, be of some help to man in making his decision. Man has to decide what should be done; society has to set up norms and aims. Why should they not be helped by an exact knowledge of the prevailing conditions in deciding what should be done in these circumstances? Is it impossible to convert the search for goals into *research into reasons* why man chooses a given goal?

What can be studied is how people do *evaluate*, how people judge, how people decide. The so-called values, means, ethical principles, and social

norms can be nothing more than a *generalization of human attitudes.* [15] The *objectified attitude* of man to man, the *objectified feeling of a society about itself* seem to be the roots of any ethics or principles. There is no third possibility: human values are either *universalia*, Platonian, independent from mankind and reality, or they are human thoughts, decisions, attitudes fixed by human beings, accepted and honored and cherished by generations, changed by the changing process in society and culture. [17]

The first assumption cannot be proved. Nobody can prove the existence of Platonian ideas, neither of Kant's *Ding an Sich*, nor of Hegel's *Objektiver Geist.* There remains an alternative: human beings decide what should be done.

This reasoning brings a reversal of all the study concerning educational goals. Now we are not asking what the educational goal should be, but what kind of goal can be set to get this "it-should-be" evaluation. We are looking for the reasons which bring us to setting aims and fixing values. The praxiological studies do not fix aims, but through investigation of the *causes* which led to the setting up of aims they promote the setting up of aims. If we know the reasons for setting up aims, we shall know what aims have to be set.

People generally make their choice in accordance with their *needs.* Individual needs may be contradictory and very subjective. The social groups *objectify* those needs, bring them to generalization, set up norms and define values. These norms, values, and aims originate from *the needs of the respective society.* Those *socially approved needs* are the reasons for any goals set up by society. They may be right or wrong, or they may *seem* to be right or wrong to some, but nobody can claim to know the whole truth, and even less to have the right to claim a monopoly of ethics. There may be some gradation of truth as well as of ethics. Newton's theory is narrower than Einstein's, national ethics is narrower than international. Probably the all-embracing truth as the all-embracing ethics is still unknown, and nobody can be sure that it is knowable at all. Humanity seems to be progressing on a hyperbolic line, approaching the point asymptotically, but never reaching it.

For a definite society this question can be reasonably answered. Society is educating the new generation to join the existing institutions, to support them, to satisfy the social needs. Any society has to set up its educational ends in accordance with its needs. The question of "what should be" is being converted into a *causal* question: what are the causes which stimulate a given society to choose these educational patterns? Why did the Spartans stress military education? Why have Jews throughout centuries been interested in religious education? Why is democracy the aim of American education?

Such reasoning tacitly assumes the validity of the causal principle. The philosopher of education has to bear in mind that this principle is being subjected to wide criticism. The author has tried elsewhere to defend this

principle [19], but here he will confine himself to a methodological conventionalism, accepting the principle of causality for methodological reasons only.

Thus we can proceed to some new and hypothetical generalization: in circumstances C, a society S, of needs N will choose a goal G. And this generalization applies to any society S, which belongs to the class S. Take, for example, aristocratic societies S_1, S_2, S_3, which are similar from the point of view of N and live in the same circumstances C. All these societies will say that a goal G *should* be achieved.

This hypothesis cannot be proved *exactly*, for nowhere can be found any $S_1 = S_2$. The truth is that $S_1 \neq S_2$, and $C_1 \neq C_2$, and $N_1 \neq N_2$.

Therefore, there can be no common G for all S, but to the extent that the causal factors are similar, the results *must* be similar too. So it can be said that *similar social structures produce similar educational aims.*

THE IMMANENT AND TRANSCENDENT AIM OF EDUCATION

A further step in clarifying this problem can be made by stipulating what has to be common and unchangeable in educational aims.

Education is not only a social function, it is a biological process too. All parents wish to see their children mature socially and biologically. The child is growing as well as *learning.* [9] Adults have always tried to assist in this natural development, and this aim, to support the natural process of growing, is the common, unchangeable, eternal aim of education. This is the eternal, *immanent* goal of education, inside the educational activity in support of the *biological* process of growing.

Societies differ from one another and they attach different meanings to maturity. To be a well-adjusted adult did not mean the same in Sparta as in Athens, and the educational aims of these two ancient towns were therefore different. They had much in common, for in both, education aimed at maturity. This was their common, unchangeable, immanent goal of education. But the social structure and cultural attitudes of these two towns were widely different, a fact which influenced their educational aims. Thus the meaning of being well adjusted changes, and this specific aim is local, conditioned by some definite causes. This is the changing, *social*, specific, *transcendent* aim of education, different in different times and places.

Any educational aims *must include the immanent aim:* helping children to mature. Any educational system which opposes this immanent aim is wrong.

Thus we have the *first basis for evaluation.* The educational process, *ex definitione*, supports growth. Any action opposing it is, from an educational point of view, wrong.

This is the first, rather too wide, framework for teleological research. The narrower, more exact, and more important question should be: what kind of adults need a given society? This brings us to a detailed *descriptive* study of the social forces, of economic relations, of cultural fea-

tures, of needs and trends in a given society. The exactness of our evaluation as to whether the fixed aims are right or wrong depends on our knowledge of society and its needs. The teleologic study of "what should be" is being converted into a descriptive one, and this enables us to provide and to evaluate educational aims. It enables us to anticipate what should be the educational aims in a given society.

The study of educational aims should proceed in a *causal* way: The social situation ⟶ the needs ⟶ the aims ⟶ the educational activities ⟶ the achievements.

The achievements should satisfy the needs. This is the *educational criterion*, the *objective* and *relative measure* of educational achievements. It is objective because it does not depend upon the measures. It is relative because it is not the same for different social structures. Even inside a given society there is room for different philosophies, corresponding to different attitudes toward social issues, such as progress and conservation. [16] The achievements have to satisfy the needs —this is the measure of aims.

ACHIEVABILITY

It is necessary to add another principle, perhaps common to all teleologic studies. Any attempt to achieve a goal has to take into account the *object* of the activities. Aristotelians would call it the *potentia* of the *materia*. If a carpenter tries to make a piece of furniture without using the right kind of wood, he will fail. If a teacher attempts to teach mentally backward children trigonometry, he will fail too. Any praxiology involves careful study of the object, of the tools, and of the conditions under which the work will be done. [3] There is no use in planning things that cannot be achieved in given circumstances.

Thus we come to the third principle: any educational aim has to be achievable. Using all three gets the philosopher of education probably better and more efficient tools.

SUMMARY

Any scientific research aims at discovering the truth. Scientific statements can be either true or false. This cannot be said about "what-should-be" sentences. Those praxiological sentences cannot be either false or true, and they cannot be verified or denied. So praxiologic sentences do not form any science at all. But they can be, nevertheless, a subject matter of a scientific study. Man and not science decides what should be done. The praxiologic study asks for the reasons for his decision, analyzes his needs in order to find out how far his aims are justified.

The teleologic study of aims in education derives its authority from the descriptive psycho-social studies of the child, the teacher, and society, from historical and comparative studies as to how the aims have been set and to what extent they have been achieved.

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THIS is a supplement to the lists for 1937-1944 and 1945-1946, which appeared in the October 1945 and April 1947 issues of TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD respectively. Sections 1, 4, 19 have been omitted for lack of significant publications.

2. General Works, Philosophy
2A. Foreign and International Education
3. Administration and Supervision
5. School Plant
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31. Audio-Visual Education
32. School and College Libraries
33. Religion in Education
34. Intercultural Education

2. GENERAL WORKS, PHILOSOPHY

Amer. Assn. of School Administrators. The expanding role of education. 484p. The Association, 1948. $3.

Amer. Assn. of School Administrators. Schools for a new world; twenty-fifth yearbook. 448p. The Association, 1947. $2.50.

Bode, B. H., and others. Modern education and human values 165p. Univ. of Pittsburgh Press, 1947. $3.

Conant, J. B. Education in a divided world, the function of the public schools in our unique society. 249p. Harvard Univ. Press, 1948. $3.

Edwards, Newton, and Richey, H. G. The school in the American social order; the dynamics of American education. 880p. Houghton, 1947. $5.

Fine, Benjamin. Our children are cheated; the crisis in American education. 244p. Holt, 1947. $3.

Grace, A. G. Educational lessons from wartime training. 264p. The Council, 1948. $3.

Kandel, I. L. The impact of the war upon American education. 285p. Univ. of N. Carolina Press, 1948. $4.25.

Kelley, E. C. Education for what is real. 114p. Harper, 1947. $2.

Rugg, Harold. Foundations for American education. 826p. World Book, 1947. $5.

Wynne, J. P. Philosophies of education from the standpoint of the philosophy of experimentalism. 427p. Prentice-Hall, 1947. $3.75.

2A. FOREIGN AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Yesipov, B. P., and Goncharov, N. K. "I want to be like Stalin"; from the Russian text on pedagogy, tr. by G. S. Counts, and N. P. Lodge. 150p. Day, 1947. $2.

Shore, M. J. Soviet education; its psychology and philosophy. 346p. Philosophical Library, 1947. $4.75.

Huxley, Julian. UNESCO: its purpose and its philosophy. 62p. Public Affairs Press, 1947. $1.

UNESCO. Preparatory Commission. Fundamental education; common ground for all peoples. 325p. Macmillan, 1947. $2.50.

Quillen, I. J. Textbook improvement and international understanding. 78p. Amer. Council on Educ.,1948. $1.

3. ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Barr, A. S., and others. Supervision; democratic leadership in the improvement of learning. 2nd ed. 879p. Appleton, 1947. $5.

Hand, H. C. What people think about their schools. 219p. World Book, 1948. $2.52.

Harris, S. E. H. How shall we pay for education? 214p. Harper, 1948. $3.

Horn, Gunnar. Public school publicity. 226p. Inor Pub. Co., 1948. $3.50.

Nat. Educ. Assn. Assn. for supervision and curriculum development. Group processes in supervision. 130p. The Association, 1948. $1.25.

Pierce, T. M. Controllable community characteristics related to the quality of education. 88p. Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1947. $2.25.

Sears, J. B. Public school administration. 433p. Ronald, 1947. $4.50.

5. SCHOOL PLANT

American school and university. 19th ed. 651p. Amer. School Pub. Corp., 1947. $4.

Bursch, C. W., and Reid, J. L. You want to build a school? 128p. Reinhold, 1947. $3.50.

New York (City) Board of Educ. Manual of school planning. 4th ed. 184p. The Board, 1947. $5.

Ohio State Univ. Bureau of Educational Research. Guide for planning elementary school buildings. Mim. Unp. The Bureau, 1947. $2.

6. HISTORY

Brubacher, J. S. A history of the problems of education. 688p. McGraw-Hill, 1947. $4.

Butts, R. F. Cultural history of education; reassessing our educational traditions. 726p. McGraw-Hill, 1947. $4.

Fuess, C. M., and Basford, E. S., eds. Unseen harvests; a treasury of teaching. 678p. Macmillan, 1947. $5.

Good, H. G. A history of western education. 575p. Macmillan, 1947. $5.

Ulich, Robert, ed. Three thousand years of educational wisdom; selections from great documents. 614p. Harvard Univ. Press, 1947. $6.50.

7. CHILD PSYCHOLOGY AND DEVELOPMENT

Alschuler, R. H. and Hattwick, L. W. Painting and personality; a study of young children. 2v. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1947. $10.

Axline, V. M. Play therapy; the inner dynamics of childhood. 379p. Houghton, 1947. $3.50.

Bossard, J. H. S. The sociology of child development. 790p. Harper, 1948. $4.50.

Cole, Luella, and Morgan, J. J. B. Psychology of childhood and adolescence. 416p. Rinehart, 1947. $3.50.

Gesell, Arnold, and Amatruda, C. S. Development diagnosis; normal and abnormal child development; clinical methods and pediatric applications. 2d ed. rev. and enl. 496p. Harper, 1947. $7.50.

Gesell, Arnold. Studies in child development. 224p. Harper, 1948. $3.50.

Hymes, J. L. A pound of prevention; how teachers can meet the emotional needs of young children. 63p. Caroline Zachry Institute, 17 E. 96th St., NYC 28, 1947. 25¢

Jersild, A. T. Child psychology. 3d ed. 623p. Prentice-Hall, 1947. $5.

Torgerson, T. L. Studying children; diagnostic and remedial procedures in teaching. 230p. Dryden, 1947. $2.75.

8. YOUTH STUDIES

Nat. Educ. Assn. Dept. of Secondary School Principals. Imperative needs of youth of secondary school age. 141p. The Association, 1947. $1.

U. S. Office of Educ. Intellectual abilities in the adolescent period, their growth and development, by David Segel. (Bul. 1948, no. 6) 41p. Supt. of Docs., 1948. 15¢.

Watson, Goodwin. Youth after conflict. 300p. Association Press, 1947. $4.

9. PSYCHOLOGY AND MENTAL HYGIENE

Hilgard, E. R. Theories of learning. 409p. Appleton, 1948. $3.75.

10. TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

Amer. Council on Educ. Comm. on Measurement and Guidance. Exploring individual differences. 110p. The Council, 1948. $1.

Amer. Council on Educ. National projects in educational measurement; a report of the 1946 invitational conference on testing problems, ed. by K. W. Vaughn 80p. The Council, 1947. $1.

Davis, F. B. Utilizing human talent; armed services selection and classification procedures . . . (prepared) for the Commission on implications of armed services educational programs. 85p. Amer. Council on Educ., 1947. $1.25.

Froehlich, C. P., and Benson, A. L. Guidance testing. 104p. Science Research Associates, 1948. $1.

Garrett, H. E. Statistics in psychology and education. 3d ed. 465p. Longmans, 1947. $4.

Terman, L. M., and Oden, M. H. The gifted child grows up; twenty-five years follow-up of a superior group (Genetic studies of genius, v.4). 448p. Stanford Univ. Press, 1947. $6.

Wrinkle, W. L. Improving marking and reporting practices in elementary and secondary schools. 120p. Rinehart, 1947. $2.

11. GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL SERVICES

Cassidy, Rosalind, and Kozman, H. C. Counseling girls in a changing society; a guide for counselors and teachers in high school and college. 441p. McGraw-Hill, 1947. $3.75.

Cox, P. W. L. and others. Basic principles of guidance. 439p. Prentice-Hall, 1948. $3.75.

Erickson, C. E., and Smith, G. E. Organization and administration of guidance services. 276p. McGraw-Hill, 1947. $3.

Kaplan, O. J., ed. Encyclopedia of vocational guidance. 2v. Philosophical Library, 1948. $18.50.

Pepinsky, H. B. The selection and use of diagnostic categories in clinical counsel-

ing. 140p. Stanford Univ. Press, 1948. $2.

Shank, D. J. and others. The teacher as counsellor. 48p. Amer. Council on Educ., 1948. 75¢

Strang, Ruth. Educational guidance: its principles and practice. 268p. Macmillan, 1947. $2.90.

Traxler, A. E. How to use cumulative records; the manual for the SRA cumulative record for junior and senior high schools. 40p. Science Research Associates, 1947. 55¢.

U. S. Office of Educ. Vocational Educ. Div. Guide to occupational choice and training; suggestions, books, and materials for guidance programs, by W. J. Greenleaf (Bul. no. 236, Occupational information and guidance ser. no. 15). 150p. Supt. of Docs., 1947. 35¢.

Wood, B. D., and Haefner, Ralph. Measuring and guiding individual growth. 535p. Silver, 1948. $4.

12. TEACHERS AND TEACHER TRAINING

Nat. Educ. Assn. Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom. Teacher tenure: analysis and appraisal. 71p. The Association, 1947. 25¢.

Woellner, R. C., and Wood, M. A. Requirements for certification of teachers and administrators for elementary schools, secondary schools, junior colleges. 12th ed. Mim. Unp. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1947. $2.25.

13. CURRICULUM AND TEACHING METHODS

Goodman, S. M. Curriculum implications of armed services educational programs (prepared) for the Commission on implications of armed services educational programs. 101p. Amer. Council on Educ., 1947. $1.25.

Hildreth, Gertrude. Child growth through education; effective teaching in the modern school. 437p. Ronald, 1948. $4.

Stratemeyer, F. B., and others. Developing a curriculum for modern living. 558p. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1947. $3.75.

Tireman. L. S. Teaching Spanish-speaking children. 213p. Univ. of New Mexico Press, 1948. $3.50.

U. S. Office of Educ. School-and-work programs; a study of experience in 136 school systems, by C. E. Legg and others. (Bul. no. 9). 59p. Supt. of Docs., 1947. 20¢.

14. PRESCHOOL, KINDERGARTEN, AND ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Hildreth, Gertrude. Learning the three R's. 2d. ed. 897p. Educ. Pub., 1947. $3.75.

Assn. for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Organizing the elementary school for living and learning; 1947 yearbook. 211p. The Association, 1947. $2.25.

Nat. Educ. Assn. Educ. Policies Com. Education for all American children. 292p. The Association, 1948. $1.25.

Nat. Soc. for the Study of Educ. Early childhood education; forty-sixth yearbook, pt. 2, ed. by N. B. Henry. 390p. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1947. $3.50.

New York (City) Bd. of Educ. Helping our young children to learn; suggestions for teachers of the first grade. 46p. The Board, 1947. 15¢.

Pratt, Caroline. I learn from children, an adventure in progressive education. 204p. Simon and Schuster, 1948. $3.

U. S. Office of Educ. Schools for children under six; a report on the status and need for nursery school and kindergartens, by M. D. Davis (Bul. no. 5). 58p. Supt. of Docs., 1947. 20¢.

15. RURAL EDUCATION

Amer. Institute of Cooperation, and Nat. Educ. Assn. Dept. of Rural Educ. Farm leaders and teachers plan together; what agricultural leaders want the schools to teach; reports of eight regional conferences of agricultural and educational leaders. 35p. The Association, 1947. 25¢.

Fox, L. K. The rural community and its school. 233p. King's Crown Press, 1948. $3.25.

U. S. Office of Educ. Schools count in country life, by E. G. Bathurst (Bul. no. 8). 61p. Supt. of Docs., 1947. 20¢.

16. SECONDARY EDUCATION

Alberty, Harold. Reorganizing the high-school curriculum. 458p. Macmillan, 1947. $4.

Douglass, H. R., ed. The high school curriculum. 661p. Ronald, 1947. $4.50.

Douglass, H. R., and Mills, H. H. Teaching in high school. 627p. Ronald, 1948. $4.50.

Fargo, Lucile F. The library in the school. 405p. Amer. Library Assn., 1947. $4.

Gruhn, W. T., and Douglass, H. R. The modern junior high school. 492p. Ronald, 1947. $4.50.

Rivlin, H.N. Teaching adolescents in secondary schools. 516p. Appleton, 1948. $3.

Spears, Harold. The emerging high-school curriculum and its direction. 416p. American Book, 1948. $3.75.

17. HIGHER EDUCATION

Cooperative Study in General Educ. Executive Committee. Cooperation in general education; a final report. 240p. Amer. Council on Educ., 1947. $3.

Cowling, D. J., and Davidson, Carter. Colleges for freedom; a study of purposes, practices, and needs. 180p. Harper, 1947. $3.

Greenough, W. C. College retirement and insurance plans. 274p. Columbia Univ. Press, 1948. $4.

McGrath, E. J. and others. Toward general Education. 224p. Macmillan, 1948. $3.

Richards, C. F. Denison; a small college studies its program. 167p. Denison Univ. Press, 1948. $2.

Starrak, J. A., and Hughes, R. M. The new junior college; the next step in free public education. 62p. Iowa State College Press, 1948. $1.25.

Tead, Ordway. Equalizing educational opportunities beyond the secondary school. 53p. Harvard Univ. Press, 1947. $1.

U. S. President's Commission on Higher Educ. Higher education for American democracy: v. 1, Establishing the goals; v. 2, Equalizing and expanding individual opportunity; v. 3, Organizing higher education; v. 4, Staffing higher education; v. 5, Higher education in American democracy. Supt. of Docs., 1947. v. 1, 40¢; v. 2, 35¢; v. 3, 30¢; v. 4, 25¢; v. 5, 25¢.

Ward, Phebe. Terminal education in the junior college . . . prepared for the Administrative committee of the Commission on terminal education of the American association of junior colleges. 282p. Harper, 1947. $2.50.

18. ADULT EDUCATION

Adam, T. R. Education for international understanding. 181p. Institute of Adult Educ., Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1948. $2.

Ely, M. L., ed. Handbook of adult education in the U. S. 555p. Institute of Adult Educ., Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1948. $5.

Houle, C. O., and others. The armed services and adult education (prepared) for the Commission on implications of armed

services educational programs. 257p. Amer. Council on Educ., 1947. $3.

Nat. Educ. Assn. Dept. of Rural Educ. On-the-job education in rural communities; 1947 yearbook ed. by R. W. Roberts. 139p. The Association, 1947. 75¢.

20. READING, WRITING AND LANGUAGE

Carmichael, Leonard, and Dearborn, W. F. Reading and visual fatigue. 483p. Houghton, 1947. $5.

Dakin, Dorothy. How to teach high school English. 592p. Heath, 1947. $3.50.

Gates, A. I. The improvement of reading; a program of diagnostic and remedial methods. 3d ed. 657p. Macmillan, 1947. $4.25.

Gray, W. S. On their own in reading. 268p. Scott, Foresman, 1948. $2.

Gray, W. S., ed. Promoting personal and social development through reading (Proceedings of the Annual conference on reading held at the Univ. of Chicago, v. 9; Sup. educ. mono. no. 64). 236p. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1947. $2.

Harris, A. J. How to increase reading ability; a guide to individualized and remedial methods. 2d ed. rev. and enl. 582p. Longmans, 1947. $4.

McKee, Paul. The teaching of reading in the elementary school. 622p. Houghton, 1948. $3.60.

Nat. Soc. for the Study of Educ. Reading in the high school and college; forty-seventh yearbook, pt. 2 ed. by N. B. Henry. 318p. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1948. $2.75.

Ward, Winifred. Playmaking with children from kindergarten to high school. 312p. Appleton, 1947. $2.50.

21. FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Angiolillo, P. F. Armed forces' foreign language teaching; critical evaluation and implications. 440p. S. F. Vanni, 30 W. 12th St., New York City, 1947. $5.

Fries, C. C. Teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Proc. 153p. Univ. of Michigan Press, 1947. $1.75.

Matthew, R. J. Language and area studies in the armed services; their future significance (prepared) for the Commission on implications of armed services educational programs. 211p. Amer. Council on Educ., 1947. $2.50.

22. SPEECH

Johnson, Wendell, and others. Speech handicapped school children. 464p. Harper, 1948. $3.00.

Nat. Educ. Assn. Dept. of Elementary School Principals. Role of speech in the elementary school; vitalizing the elementary school curriculum. 112p. The Association, 1947. $1.

Nat. Educ. Assn. Dept. of Secondary School Principals. Speech education for all American youth. (Bull. v. 32, no. 151. Jan., 1948) 238p. The Association. $1.

23. MATHEMATICS

Brueckner, L. J., and Grossnickle, F. E. How to make arithmetic meaningful. 513p. Winston, 1947. $4.

Buckingham, B. R. Elementary arithmetic; its meaning and practice. 744p. Ginn, 1947. $4.50.

Buswell, G. T., ed. "Arithmetic 1947"; papers presented at the second annual conference on arithmetic. . . (Sup. educ. mono. No. 63). 73p. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1947. $1.50.

Buswell, G. T., ed. "Arithmetic 1948"; papers presented at the third annual conference on arithmetic . . . (Sup. educ. mono. No. 66) 90p. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1948. $2.50.

Spitzer, H. F. The teaching of arithmetic. 397p. Houghton, 1948. $3.

24. SCIENCE

Craig, Gerald Spellman. Science for the elementary school teacher. 561p. Ginn, 1947. $3.95.

Haefner, Ralph. Teaching aeronautics in high schools; a study of methods, principles and measurements; prepared for the Civil aeronautics administration and the American council on education. 419p. McGraw-Hill, 1947. $3.50.

Nat. Soc. for the Study of Educ. Science education in American schools; forty-sixth yearbook, pt. 1, ed. by N. B. Henry. 306p. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1947. $3.25.

25. GEOGRAPHY AND SOCIAL STUDIES

Hartley, W. H., ed. Audio-visual materials and methods in the social studies. (Nat. Council for the Social Studies. 18th yrbk.) 214p. The Council, 1947. $2.50.

Thursfield, R. E., ed. The study and teaching of American history. (Nat. Council for the Social Studies. 17th yrbk). 442p. The Council, 1947. $2.50.

26. ART AND MUSIC

Barnes Foundation, Merion, Pa. Art and education. 2d. ed. rev. and enl. 315p. Barnes Foundation Press, Merion, Pa., 1947. $3.

Lowenfeld, Viktor. Creative and mental growth; textbook on art education. 304p. Macmillan, 1947. $4.50.

Mursell, J. L. Education for musical growth. 343p. Ginn, 1948. $3.50.

Music Educators Nat. Conference. Music education source book, ed. by H. N. Morgan. 256p. The Conference, 1947. $3.50.

27. HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Biester, L. L., and others. Units in personal health and human relations. 267p. Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1947. $3.50.

Chenoweth, L. B., and Selkirk, T. K. School health problems . . . with an outline on school health administration, by R. A. Bolt. 3d. ed. 419p. Crofts, 1947. $3.

Kozman. H. C., and others. Methods in physical education. 552p. Saunders, 1947. $4.25.

Leonard, F. E. A guide to the history of physical education. 3d. ed., rev. and enl. by G. B. Affleck. 480p. Lea & Febiger, 1947. $5.50.

Nash, J. B. Physical education; interpretations and objectives. 288p. Barnes, 1948. $3.

Sehon, E. L. and others. Physical education methods for elementary schools. 485p. Saunders, 1948. $3.75.

28. COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Eastern Commercial Teachers Assn. and The Nat. Business Teachers Assn. The changing business education curriculum (Amer. business yrbk. v. 4). 392p. N. Y. Univ. Bookstore, 1947. $2.50.

Tonne, H. A. Principles of business education. 568p. Gregg, 1947. $2.

29. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Bergevin, Paul. Industrial apprenticeship. 280p. McGraw-Hill, 1947. $2.75.

Kähler, Alfred and Hamburger, Ernest. Education for an industrial age. 334p. Cornell Univ. Press, 1948. $3.75.

Keller, F. J. Principles of vocational education. 402p. Heath, 1948. $3.50.

Mays, A. B. Principles and practices of vocational education. 303p. McGraw-Hill, 1948. $3.50.

Newkirk, L. V. Organizing and teaching the general shop. 200p. Manual Arts Press, 1947. $4.

Rakestraw, C. E. Training high-school youth for employment. 217p. Amer. Technical Soc., 1947. $3.50.

30. HOME ECONOMICS AND CONSUMER EDUCATION

Allgood, M. B. Demonstration techniques. 147p. Prentice-Hall, 1947. $2.50.

Nat. Educ. Assn. Dept. of Secondary-School Principals. Consumer Educ. Study. Consumer education in your school; a handbook for teachers and administrators. 128p. The Association, 1947. 60¢.

U. S. Office of Educ. Vocational Educ. Div. Homemaking education in secondary schools of the United States. 23p. Supt. of Docs., 1947. 15¢.

31. AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

Chandler, A. C. and Cypher, I. F. Audio-visual techniques for enrichment of the curriculum. 252p. Noble, 1948. $3.50.

Exton, William. Audio-visual aids to instruction. 344p. McGraw-Hill, 1947. $4.

Grierson, John. Grierson on documentary, ed. and comp. by Forsyth Hardy. 324p. Harcourt, 1947. $3.75.

Knowlton, P. A. A report to educators on teaching films survey. 117p. Harper, 1948. Gratis.

Miles, J. R., and Spain, C. R. Audio-visual aids in the armed services; implications for American education . . . (prepared) for the Commission on implications of armed services educational programs. 96p. Amer. Council on Educ., 1947. $1.25.

Willey, R. DeV., and Young, H. A. Radio in elementary education. 450p. Heath, 1948. $3.50.

32. SCHOOL AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

Walraven, M. K., and Hall-Quest, A. L. Teaching through the elementary school library. 183p. Wilson, 1948. $3.

33. RELIGION IN EDUCATION

Amer. Council on Educ. Committee on Religion and Educ. The relation of religion to public education; the basic principles. 54p. The Council, 1947. $1.

Thayer, V. T. Religion in public education. 212p. Viking, 1947. $2.75.

34. INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

American Council on Educ. Advisory Committee on Intergroup Educ. in Cooperating Schools. Reading ladders for human relations. Proc. 67p. The Council, 1947. $1.

Kilpatrick, W. H., and Van Til, William, eds. Intercultural attitudes in the making; parents, youth leaders, and teachers at work. 246p. Harper, 1947. $3.

New York (State) Univ. Education for unity in the schools of New York state. 104p. The University, 1947. 50¢.

Teachers College, Columbia University
Register of Doctoral Dissertations

ACCEPTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Volume III, Second Annual Supplement, 1948

Volume I* of the *Register of Doctoral Dissertations*, covering the years 1899–1936, volume II**, 1937–1941, volume III**, 1942–1946, may be purchased from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College. The 1947 supplement appeared in the April, 1948 issue of *Teachers College Record*.

It should be noted that titles of dissertations not yet published are sometimes changed at time of publication.

This *Register* does not include project reports submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for the Doctor of Education degree. A separate *Register of Doctor of Education Reports*, volume Ix, 1935–March 1, 1945, *First Supplement*xx, March 1945–December 1946, and *Second Supplement*xx, January 1947–December 1948, are obtainable from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College. These are reprints from *Teachers College Record*, November and December 1945, March 1947, and March 1949, respectively.

22. ALMY, MILLIE CORINNE
A study of children's experiences prior to first grade in relation to success in beginning reading. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

23. BAKER, HAROLD STEWART
The high-school English teacher: concepts of professional responsibility and role. Toronto, Ryerson Press, 1949. 107p.

24. EISENSTEIN, MIRIAM
Jewish schools in Poland—their philosophy and development: 1919-1939.
To be published.

25. FEIFEL, HERMAN
Qualitative differences in the vocabulary responses of normals and abnormals.
To be published.

26. FISHER, KENNETH ALLEN
Changes in test performance of ambulatory depressed patients undergoing electro-shock therapy.
To be published.

27. FREEDMAN, MRS. FLORENCE BERNSTEIN
Walt Whitman, schoolmaster and school reporter.
To be published.

28. FULLER, KENNETH GARY
An experimental study of two methods of long division. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

29. GILLEN, PAUL BATES
The distribution of occupations as a basic city yardstick.
To be published.

30. GOFF, REGINA MARY
An investigation of the problems and emotional difficulties of Negro children, in selected communities of the United States, which are attributed by children and parents to the fact that they are Negroes. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

* $.75 ** $.50 x $.30 xx Free

31. GOLDBERG, SAMUEL
Army training of illiterates in World war II. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

32. HIBBITT, GEORGE WHITING
Diphthongs in American speech: a study of the duration of diphthongs in the contextual speech of two hundred and ten male undergraduates.
To be published.

33. KATES, SOLIS LEIGHTER
Rorschach responses related to vocational interests and job satisfaction.
To be published.

34. KERR, CHESTER ARTHUR
Studies in the free-time activities of children. New York, Association Press, 1947. 109p.

35. KHAN, ABDUL MUJIB
Influence of rewards and punishments on connections of different degrees of initial strength. New York, 1949.

36. KORNER, MRS. ANNELIESE FRIEDSAM
Some aspects of hostility in young children; hostility as expressed in play and in real-life situations by a group of preschool children. New York, Grune & Stratton, 1949. 194p.

37. LAMPKIN, RICHARD HENRY
Variability in recognizing scientific inquiry: an analysis of high school science textbooks. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

38. LEE, GORDON CANFIELD
The struggle to obtain federal aid for the common schools: 1870 to 1890. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

39. MITCHELL, MRS. MARY ALICE SCHROYER
The relationship of reading to the social acceptability of sixth grade children. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

40. MOSSIN, ALBERT CHARLES
Relation of salesgirls' job performance and job contentment to their high school backgrounds. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

41. PASTORE, NICHOLAS
A sociological approach to the nature-nurture controversy.
To be published.

42. POTTER, MURIEL CATHERINE
Perception of symbol orientation and early reading success. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

43. ROACH, HELEN PAULINE
History of speech education at Columbia College (1754-1940). New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

44. ROE, HARVEY
The psychological effects of having a cerebral palsied child in the family.
To be published.

45. SCHIFFERES, JUSTUS JULIUS
How to live longer: a study of the factors in health education influencing longevity in the United States since 1900, with special reference to vital statistics and symptomatology of the principal causes of death. New York, Dutton, 1949. 256p.

46. WEINGAST, DAVID ELLIOTT
Walter Lippmann: a study in personal journalism.
To be published.

47. WILSON, MRS. MARY KEELING
Achievement of college students in beginning courses in food preparation and serving and related factors. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

48. WILSON, MRS. PAULINE PARK
College women express futility: a study of fifty case histories of women college

graduates. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

49. WOLFSON, ROSE
A study in handwriting analysis: an experiment with the Lewinson and Zubin scales. Ann Arbor, Mich., Edwards, 1949. 95p.

50. WOLLNER, MRS. MARY BOWEN
Children's voluntary reading as an expression of individuality. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

51. WOOLLATT, LORNE HEDLEY
The cost-quality relationship on the growing edge: a study of returns for money spent in high expenditure school systems. New York, Teachers College, 1949.
In press.

Departmental Notes

Office of the Dean

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees February 3, Mr. Thomas Milbank and Miss Jane Watson were elected to membership on the Board, and Mr. Cleveland E. Dodge (Chairman), Mr. Arthur W. Page (Vice-Chairman), and Mr. Valentine E. Macy, Jr. (Secretary) were re-elected as officers for 1949-50.

Elevated to full professorships were Associate Professors Mary E. Chayer, Donald E. Super, and Arthur R. Young. Assistant Professors Ryland W. Crary, Daniel R. Davies, Harold J. McNally, Orpha Mae Thomas, and Paul W. F. Witt were advanced to associate professors. Dr. Manson Van B. Jennings and Dr. Norton L. Beach were granted the rank of Assistant Professor, with Dr. Beach retaining his earlier title of Research Associate in the Institute of Administrative Research. All promotions are effective July 1, with the exception of Dr. Jennings', dating from February 8.

The appointment of Albert S. Thompson as associate professor of education, effective September 1, will bring a new faculty member to Teachers College. Appointments of Professor Arthur I. Gates as Director of Division I, effective February 1, and Professor Howard F. Fehr as Head of the Department of Teaching of Mathematics, effective July 1, were also reported. The request of Instructor Mary Agnes Davis for retirement was accepted, effective June 30.

The following sabbatical leaves were granted: academic year 1949-50, Professor Robert L. Thorndike; winter session 1949-50, Professors Clifford L. Brownell and John R. Clark, and spring session 1949-50, Professors Jean Betzner, Edward S. Evenden, F. L. Fitzpatrick, Erling M. Hunt, Esther Lloyd-Jones, Harold Rugg, Percival M. Symonds, and Clara M. Taylor.

Division I

Foundations of Education

SOCIAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

During the spring session absence of Professor R. Freeman Butts, Professor Edward H. Reisner is serving as acting head of the department. Professor Butts, who is on leave, is in Madison, Wis.

Interviewed by the *New York Times* in January on the foreign student crisis, Professor Clarence Linton declared that of 25,000 students in the country, a conservative estimate showed 5,000 in urgent need of financial aid to continue their studies through the spring semester. An emergency federal appropriation of $2,500,000 would be needed to assure the continuance of all worthy students until June.

Professor Linton was on a special joint committee of the Greater New York Council for Foreign Students and the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers conferring with the Immigration and Naturalization Service and the Department of State about foreign students, February 3, in Washington. Professor Linton is also a member of the sub-committee of the American Council on Education preparing a brochure on counseling foreign students. This sub-committee met at the University of Minnesota January 30.

PROFESSOR Goodwin Watson spoke at the "live exhibits" annual meeting of the Newark Jewish Community Center in January. At the opening session of the Association of Private Camps' 1949 convention in New York February 4, Professor Watson pointed out that education owes much to camping, but urged camp directors to maintain a wider social and economic representation among their youngsters.

A research project dealing with educational and intellectual movements in the Far East is occupying Professor Donald G. Tewksbury during his spring sabbatical at Stanford University's Hoover Library.

Division II

Administration and Guidance

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A Teachers College dinner was held March 1 during the thirty-third annual NASSP conference, which convened separately from the AASA for the first time in many years. The event took place at the Congress Hotel in Chicago, and marked the first TC dinner meeting especially for high school principals. Professor Will French, Dr. Galen Jones, director of the Division of Secondary Education, U. S. Office of Education, Professor Stephen M. Corey, and Dean William F. Russell were the speakers.

Among Teachers College people appearing on the program of the convention were Professor French on "How the Experience-Centered Curriculum Can Be Developed in the High School," Professor Gordon N. Mackenzie on "Curriculum Patterns for the Modern Secondary School," and Miss Marcella R. Lawler, chairman of a meeting on trends in guidance services for youth.

ON January 7 and 8, Professor Daniel R. Davies met in Washington with other members of a planning committee for the national conference of Professors of Educational Administration. On January 17, Professor Davies told 200 teachers at the general teachers meeting in the Belleville, N. J., High School auditorium that "Schools Are Mostly People."

PROFESSOR Paul R. Mort was one of 40 discussion leaders at the American Press Institute, held at Columbia University for three weeks in January.

GUIDANCE

NEWLY-appointed Associate Professor Albert S. Thompson will give instruction in the vocational guidance and occupational adjustment sequence at Teachers College starting in the fall. Associate professor of psychology at Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., since 1945, Professor Thompson has taught in public schools, been an industrial consultant, supervised a guidance center, and served as a university placement officer. He was formerly instructor in psychology and research assistant at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, where he took his doctor's degree.

A reunion dinner of former TC students in vocational guidance was scheduled during the convention of the NVGA and allied organizations at the Stevens Hotel in Chicago April 18 to 21. The dinner was held in the faculty dining room of Roosevelt College.

ON January 29 and 30, Professor Laurance F. Shaffer attended a meeting of the panel of psychological consultants to the Public Health Service in Washington, D. C., and on February 5, acted as chairman of the general session of the conference of the New York State Psychological Association.

PROFESSOR Harry D. Kitson has been in California since the latter part of March, and will return to the College for the winter session.

Division III

Instruction

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING

More than 150 people from all over the country were present for the Conference on Community Resources conducted by Professor Paul Witt at the College from February 10 to 12.

The February calendar of Professor Emma D. Sheehy included participation in a music workshop for teachers in the New York Day Care Program February 2; consultative work at Wheelock College, Boston, February 7 and 8, and speaking at the early childhood education section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education on February 18, where her topic was "Recordings for Young Children."

The final talk in the annual marriage relations series at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, was given March 15 by Professor Ernest G. Osborne, who spoke on "Psychological Factors in Marriage." The School Community Association of Manhasset, N. Y., also heard Professor Osborne speak in January at Manhasset High School.

"The Teaching Perils of Pauline" was the theme of Professor Ruth Cunningham's address to a meeting sponsored by the Binghamton, N. Y., Teachers Association February 3.

NATURAL SCIENCES

On January 6 and 7, Professor Gerald S. Craig worked with the teachers of the Wayne, Pa., Grammar School. He addressed the National Council on Elementary Science at its annual meeting February 12 on "The Unfinished Business of Elementary Science." In April, the Long Island Science Teachers Association and the Northport Public Schools had Professor Craig as speaker at the final workshop session of a monthly spring clinic series on elementary science.

MATHEMATICS

At Boston University March 9 and 10, Professor Howard F. Fehr gave talks on "Attitudes and Appreciations in Mathematics Teaching" and "Provisions for the Slow Learner in the Mathematics Curriculum" before mathematics teachers and secondary school administrators meeting in a cooperative laboratory for high school curricula.

On April 2, Professor Fehr conducted a seminar on senior high school mathematics for better students at the annual convention of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics in Baltimore. On April 8, the private school mathematics teachers of New York heard him discuss "Means for Improvement of Mathematical Attainment." During the week of August 23, he will conduct the section on activities in the senior high school mathematics class at the New England Workshop at Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.

ENGLISH AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Professor Lennox Grey was a major participant in the two-day forum on general education at the Utica Technical Institute, Utica, N. Y., January 24 and 25, which centered around the use of community materials as a framework for the general program.

FINE AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS

As president of the National Art Education Association, Professor Edwin Ziegfeld has had an active two months. He presided at the meetings of the NAEA Council February 18 and 19 in Chicago, attended the second national conference of UNESCO in Cleveland March 31 to April 2, and met with regional chairmen of the American Junior Red Cross in Washington March

10 and 11 to discuss the International Art Exchange, which is co-sponsored by the Junior Red Cross and the National Art Education Association. Professor Ziegfeld also presided at a general session of the Western Arts Association considering problems relating to the national group.

An exhibit of furniture which can be constructed by amateurs was on view in the gallery at America House, New York City, from February 2 to 23. Sponsored by the American Craftsmen's Educational Council and labeled "Creative Approach to Home Design," the exhibit was conceived by Norman Cherner, instructor in fine and industrial arts at the College. Two students, Richard Gutzeit and Boris Schwartz, assisted in its execution.

MUSIC EDUCATION

Professor Howard A. Murphy was chairman of the college theory panel at the Music Educators National Conference held in Baltimore March 7 to 9.

On behalf of the American String Teachers Association and Phi Mu Alpha Sinfonia, Professor Ernest E. Harris addressed the National Music Council at its annual meeting in New York January 14. In February, he conducted a music education workshop for teachers in the Wilmington, Del., public schools. Professor Harry R. Wilson opened this series of workshop meetings in Wilmington on January 20.

HOME ECONOMICS

Professor Mary deGarmo Bryan was one of the speakers at the meeting of the New York State School Lunch Advisory Committee in Albany February 3.

At an in-service training course sponsored by the Queens, N. Y., School Health Council, Professor Clara M. Taylor spoke recently on nutrition education.

Preparing to teach a course in household equipment this summer at the College, Professor Orpha Mae Thomas visited colleges and universities in the Midwest in January, and communicated with manufacturing plants, major appliance exhibits, the Furniture Mart and Housewares Exhibit in Chicago, and the American Gas Association Workshop for home economists.

BUSINESS AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Representatives from teachers colleges of Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and New York attended a business teacher education conference at the Men's Faculty Club, Columbia University, in February. Dr. Abraham Kroll, chairman of the business education section of the New York City Board of Examiners, spoke on the "Problems of Teacher Examinations."

The annual Teachers College business education breakfast was held in connection with the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association conference in New York this April.

Professor Hamden L. Forkner's engagements this spring included: a speech to the principals and department chairmen of Baltimore secondary schools on "Problems of Curriculum Planning" in February; attendance with Professor John L. Rowe at the annual meeting of the National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions in St. Louis in February; remarks at the first conference of Albany State Teachers College's business education department in March; addresses at the University of Alabama, and at the State Business Education Association meeting, both in Birmingham, in March, and a talk at the annual conference of the Women's College of the University of North Carolina, Greensboro.

At a conference on the teaching of typewriting, of which he was in charge, Profes-

sor Rowe gave a typing demonstration to the business education students at Connecticut State Teachers College, New Britain, February 17. From March 14 to 20, he consulted with the curriculum committee of the Seattle, Wash., public schools, at their request, considering the contribution of business education to general education. His work included the introduction of the revised Gregg shorthand materials. Using high school students from Seattle, Professor Rowe also conducted a typing demonstration before the Western Washington Commercial Teachers Association.

On April 2, he spoke to the undergraduates of Boston University on "Trends in Business Education." Professor Rowe gave a demonstration of developing advanced typing skills with students from colleges in the New York area before the Eastern Business Teachers Association convention on April 15. The Virginia teachers of shorthand heard Professor Rowe on improved methods of developing transcription skill, at Madison College, Harrisonburg, April 22.

HEALTH EDUCATION AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

PROFESSOR Josephine L. Rathbone was present at a student conference on China February 26 and 27 at Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y. A talk on and demonstration of techniques of relaxation was her contribution March 2 and 3 to the program of a post-graduate course in physical medicine and rehabilitation, held at the University of Texas medical branch in Galveston.

Division IV

Nursing Education

ONE of two nurses, the first ever appointed honorary consultants to the Navy's Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, Professor R. Louise McManus attended a conference in Washington January 28 and 29 to form a reserve advisory board for the Bureau.

RESERVATIONS for the annual dinner meeting of the Alumni Association of the Division are being received in the office at Teachers College, New York 27, N. Y., and may also be purchased during the May convention. The dinner will be held May 3 in Cleveland.

Institute of Administrative Research

UNDER the aegis of the Metropolitan School Study Council, the *Herald Tribune*, local boards of education, and three world-wide airlines, thirty-four European students from seventeen Marshall plan countries were guests in the homes of metropolitan high school students early in the year.

GUEST speaker at a February 15 forum of the Citizens' School League of Stamford, Conn., was Professor Mort, who interpreted an opinion survey of elementary and junior high school mothers made by the League.

Institute of Field Studies

THE Institute has completed its survey of school plant facilities in Worcester, Mass., supervised by Professor Henry H. Linn.

Office of Field Relations and Placement*

The following recent appointments are reported by the Office of Field Relations and Placement:

Adam, Eleanore (A.M. 1940), instructor in clothing, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Andrews, Helen R. (A.M. 1946), assistant dean of women, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

**Any student who is taking or has taken twelve points of work at Teachers College may register with the Office of Field Relations and Placement. Any student in the allied schools of Columbia University who has carried twelve points of work is also eligible for registration.*

Bell, Lacey Dell (A.M. 1948), professor of physical education, Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Baton Rouge, La.

Berggren, John R. (A.M. 1948), assistant professor of music, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.

Boden, Dale P., teacher of mathematics, High School, Tenafly, N. J.

Bodie, Winifred, teacher of piano, City School System, Troy, N. C.

Bookbinder, Robert Max (A.M. 1948), teacher of physical education, Third Supervisory District, Huntington, N. Y.

Braddock, Richard, instructor in English and social studies, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Brown, Lynn E., Jr. (A.M. 1938), elementary supervisor and curriculum coordinator, Livonia Township School District, Plymouth, Mich.

Bruggman, Joseph E., instructor in music, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Buchanan, Mary G. M. (A.M. 1944), teacher of fourth grade, Chestnut Street School, Roselle, N. J.

Cahill, Sallie (A.M. 1947), senior education supervisor, New York State Education Department, Albany, N. Y.

Cascio, Lawrence Anthony, instructor in French, Queens College of the City of New York, Flushing, N. Y.

Chaffin, Gladwin W. (A.M. 1947), instructor in piano, Public Schools, Bethany, West Virginia.

Collins, Rhoda (A.M. 1930), teacher of home economics, Highland Manor School, Long Branch, N. J.

Daum, Henry F., secretary and business manager, Abington Township Schools, Abington, Pa.

Deasy, Nathalie, teacher of second and third grades, Good Shepherd School, New York, N. Y.

Fisher, Merna D., instructor in clothing and textiles, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

Fuerst, Bettie V. (A.M. 1948), office coordinator and assistant to the supervisor, Audio-Visual Center, City College of the City of New York, New York, N. Y.

Gilmore, Eileen (A.M. 1943), instructor in art, University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho.

Grill, Stanley W. (A.M. 1942), principal, Southern Lancaster County Joint High School, Quarryville, Pa.

Heyer, Eleanor (A.M. 1948), instructor in art, Miss Fine's School, Princeton, N. J.

High, Edward J. (A.M. 1948), head of business education department, Allen University, Columbia, S. C.

Hill, Susan V. (A.M. 1935), teacher of home economics, High School, Woodstown, N. J.

Hills, Mabel Harriet, medical-surgical teaching supervisor, Central Maine General Hospital School of Nursing, Lewiston, Me.

Hope, Constance Hoff, kindergarten teacher, Robert Morris School, South Bound Brook, N. J.

Houston, James, Jr. (A.M. 1947), principal, Hudson School, New Rochelle, N. Y.

Hunt, Randolph B., teacher of music, High School, Atlantic Highlands, N. J.

Kinney, Myrtie E. (A.M. 1944), nutritionist, Visiting Nurse Association, New Britain, Conn.

Klein, Clarence S. (A.M. 1935), teacher of fifth grade, Public School No. 184, New York.

Kline, G. Louise, medical supervisor and instructor, City Hospital, Akron, Ohio.

Landis, Mildred M. (A.M. 1941), professor of art, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.

Lucas, Earl R., Jr. (A.M. 1949), assistant professor of art, Eastern Montana State Normal School, Billings, Mont.

Lucht, Kenneth G. (A.M. 1948), assistant in psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Lundin, Mabel Victoria (A.M. 1935), teacher of sixth grade, Mc Clure School, Western Springs, Ill.

Mag, Lillian (A.M. 1949), assistant director of nurses, Delaware Hospital, Wilmington, Del.

Meehan, Mary Claire (A.M. 1947), instructor in commercial education, Marywood College, Scranton, Pa.

Mileham, James W. (Ed.D. 1946), dean, Hagerstown Junior College, Hagerstown, Md.

Millelot, Betty Kolleda (B.S. 1939), teacher of music, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Miller, Paul E. (A.M. 1931), director of training, Springfield Armory, Springfield, Mass.

Mills, Frederick E. (A.M. 1948), director of music, Shawnee Centralized School, Lima, Ohio.

Montgomery, Lola, counselor, Phillips University, Enid, Okla.

Myers, Julian S. (A.M. 1942), psychologist, New York University-Bellevue Institute of Rehabilitation, New York, N. Y.

Nepp, Dorothy Ruth (B.S. 1946), nursery school teacher, Stamford, Conn., Day Nursery.

Nicholas, Florence Louise (A.M. 1931), director of studies, Ellis College, Newtown Square, Pa.

Osborne, Catherine (A.M. 1948), health educator, Bethlehem Tuberculosis and Health Society, Bethlehem, Pa.

Ritter, Joseph, principal, Church Street and Jefferson Street Schools, Little Falls, N. Y.

Rivel, Bernice (M.S. 1948), dietitian, Lebanon Hospital, Bronx, N. Y.

Ross, Donald Howat (A.M. 1946), supervising principal, Matawan Township Schools, Matawan, N. J.

Rubino, Edith, supervisor and instructor in obstetrics, Morrisania Hospital, Bronx, N. Y.

Rubinstein, Doris, teacher of English and social studies, Washington Irving High School, Tarrytown, N. Y.

Schoebel, Henry R. (A.M. 1948), teacher of social studies, Junior-Senior High School, Malverne, N. Y.

Seabury, Hugh F. (Ed.D. 1938), associate professor of speech, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

Showell, Milton Floyd (A.M. 1948), teacher of commercial education, Fullerton High School, Tuckerton, N. J.

Shumaker, Jacqueline (A.M. 1948), teacher of English, High School, Beacon, N. Y.

Slate, Isabel M. (B.S. 1947), teacher of home economics, High School, Great Barrington, Mass.

Slaybaugh, Ellmore H. (A.M. 1941), principal, High School, Pemberton, N. J.

Spors, Milton R. (A.M. 1947), band director, High School, Westby, Wis.

Stelzer, Sheldon S. (A.M. 1947), teacher and supervisor of art, High School, Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.

Symms, D. Eugenia (A.M. 1948), assistant to the dean of women, Arizona State College, Tempe, Ariz.

Turner, Joyce M. (A.M. 1947), nutrition consultant, Harlem Tuberculosis and Health Community, New York, N. Y.

Turpin, Amy Ethel, teacher of play group, The Chapel of the Incarnation, New York, N. Y.

Vollbrecht, Ernest (A.M. 1940), professor of art, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Walker, Millard C. (A.M. 1946), choral director, Columbia High School, Richland, Wash.

Wells, Eleanor F. (A.M. 1924), dietitian, Society of St. Johnland, Kings Park, N. Y.

Whitaker, Forrestine (A.M. 1947), instructor in dance, Blackstone College for Girls, Blackstone, Va.

Whitehurst, Nellie May (A.M. 1946), residence counselor, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C.

Wright, Jimmell C., educational director, Forest Neighborhood House, Bronx, N. Y.

Alumni Activities

CHIEF of the school finance section in the U. S. Office of Education since January is EDGAR L. MORPHET (Ph.D. 1927), formerly general consultant to the Florida State Department of Education. From 1945 to 1947, he was also executive secretary of the Florida Citizens Committee of Education, responsible for preparing Florida's new school program. This fall he served as associate research director for the Council of State Governments' study of the 48 states' school systems.

RALPH P. GALLAGHER (A.M. 1937), who was in Germany this fall for AMG engaged in stimulating local initiative to rebuild the school system, has returned to Bound Brook, N. J., where he is in his first year as superintendent of schools. The job, he reports, is "interesting and as big as I have the time and energy to make it."

THREE volumes of the Scribner's social studies series are just off the press, with two more soon to follow. CLYDE B. MOORE (Ph.D. 1924) of the Cornell University School of Education is senior author of the series, which has been adopted by the states of Texas, Oregon, and Virginia.

A pioneer in the field of nursery and elementary school education, EDNA DEAN BAKER, former graduate student, will retire in September after 28 years as president of the National College of Education, Evanston, Ill. Miss Baker took over at the College when it had an annual enrollment of 200 students, and watched the number grow to a total of 900 this year. Past president of the National Council on Parent Education and a member of former President Hoover's Committee on Child Health and Protection, Miss Baker has written several children's books on religion, including *A Child Is Born*, and has co-authored a number of beginning readers.

ON July 1, FLORENCE A. MEYER (A.M. 1909) will retire from her position as supervisor of physical education in the Newark, N. J., public schools.

How To Live Longer is the title of a new book by JUSTUS J. SCHIFFERES (Ph.D. 1948), part-time instructor in health and physical education at the College from 1945 to 1947.

MINNIE PRICE (A.M. 1930), an extension service worker for 33 years, has been elected to membership in Epsilon Sigma Phi, national honorary fraternity of extension workers.

IN charge of the New Canaan, Conn., Visiting Nurse Association for eight years, RUTH E. HOYT (A.M. 1937) has become field supervisor and assistant to the nursing director of the VNA of New Britain, Conn.

AT a five-day choral clinic of Oklahoma City high school choirs in March, LARA HOGGARD (Ed.D. 1947), choral assistant to Fred Waring, was guest conductor. Formerly director of choral music in Durant, Okla., High School, Dr. Hoggard conducted the Navy Bluejacket Choir during the war, and has been with Waring's Pennsylvanians for three years.

ASSISTANT Health Education Director MARJORIE MARTIN (A.M. 1946) of the Yonkers, N. Y., YWCA has been promoted to the position of director of the health education department.

The Student Council

The students pictured on this and the following page are members of the executive committee of the Teachers College Student Council, reorganized this fall on the basis of departmental representation rather than student clubs. In addition to attending to the revision of the Council's constitution, members elected this fall have attempted in their projects to emphasize services beneficial especially to the student. To travel in this direction, various committees have streamlined the communications system among the students; studied the Council's place in the financial structure of the College; taken over the World Student Service Fund spring campaign; sponsored Chapel programs; brought to the students a first-hand explanation of the new development plan at the College, and have set up, with the faculty, an ethical practices committee to develop an honor system for examinations and other phases of College life. The thirty-five students on the Council are natives of eighteen states ranging literally from Maine to California, as well as Canada, Sweden, and India.

BABETTE FRANK
Executive Secretary

Since December, 1947, Miss Frank has been employed by the College as executive secretary and counselor for student organizations, with the activities of student clubs as well as the Council channeled through her office. After she receives her Ed.D. degree from TC in student personnel administration, she does not contemplate an early change of position: "There is still stimulating work to be done right here," says she. Upon graduation from Wellesley College with an A.B. in English literature in 1944, Miss Frank became assistant to the Dean of Women at Denison University in her home state of Ohio. Two years later, she came to Teachers College, where she received her Master's degree in 1947. She is a member of Pi Lambda Theta and Kappa Delta Pi.

MALCOLM D. WILLIAMS
President

On leave from the Crosby-Garfield School, Raleigh, N. C., where he has been principal since 1945, the president of the Council holds a Dean's Scholarship. Several summers of study at the College won him a Master's degree, and he is now aiming for an Ed.D. in curriculum and teaching. Last summer, Mr. Williams was an assistant in that department, and he has been elected to Phi Delta Kappa and Kappa Delta Pi. He hopes to return to North Carolina as a school principal, curriculum consultant, or audio-visual aids director, and is now vice-president of the North Carolina Teachers Association. An instructor in the Museum of Natural History's classes for City school children, Mr. Williams will teach audio-visual aids this summer at his alma mater, Hampton Institute.

HAROLD F. PRIESTER, vice-president, is an "educational generalist, not a specialist," and proud of it. From Florida, he heads the Council's executive committee, will receive his Master's in June, and is studying for his Ed.D. in administration. As a colonel in ETO, he received the Legion of Merit and Croix de Guerre.

Although Secretary EVA R. SAUER is a Canadian, she wants to remain in the United States after she receives her Ph.D. in student personnel administration. Still in her early twenties, she has been in school almost all her life, taking her Master's at the College last June.

At Indiana University, JEANNE FOX EASON, member-at-large, was determined to be a sociologist. But she became a WAVES Link Trainer instructor and decided that pre-school teaching was her forte, although she later received a B.S. from Columbia in sociology. Mrs. Eason will win her M.A. in June.

Member-at-large KENNETH G. JONES is an assistant in the Placement Office. A native of Maine, he came to TC soon after his Navy discharge. Last year, he was an assistant in curriculum and teaching and earned his M.A. Mr. Jones is vice-president of Phi Delta Kappa and is knee-deep in doctoral study.